THE JOURNAL

OF

CLINICAL INVESTIGATION

VOLUME XII 1933

PUBLISHED BY
THE AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR CLINICAL INVESTIGATION

THE JOURNAL

OF

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EDITED FOR THE AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR CLINICAL INVESTIGATION

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PUBLISHED BIMONTHLY

PRINCE AND LEMON STREETS, LANCASTER, PA

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VOLUME XII

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NOVEMBER: 1933

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995

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FURTHER STUDIES ON THE AGGLUTINATION REACTION IN CHRONIC ARTHRITIS 1

BY EDITH E NICHOLLS AND WENDELL I STAINSBY

(From the Department of Medicine of Cornell University Medical College, the Second (Cornell) Medical Division of Bellevue Hospital and the New York Hospital New York City)

(Received for publication November 30 1932)

The present authors (1), collaborating with Cecil, reported, in 1929, the isolation of streptococci from the blood and joints of patients having rheumatoid arthritis. A large percentage of the organisms thus recovered were culturally and biologically similar, and presented the appearance of hemolytic streptococci on blood agar plates. For convenience, these organisms were designated as "typical strains"

In later communications the authors reported, with Cecil (2), and alone (3, 4), that the serums of a high percentage of patients showing well developed signs of rheumatoid arthritis gave strong agglutination reactions with "typical strain" streptococci. The same serums gave positive agglutination results with a few hemolytic streptococci from sources other than arthritis, but whenever such reactions took place the organisms were culturally and biologically indistinguishable from "typical strain" streptococci With other bacterial antigens, however, including indifferent and green producing streptococci, pneumococci, staphylococci and colon bacilly they gave little or no agglutination Likewise, negative or insignificant reactions were obtained when the serums of a large number of normal individuals and of patients with other diseases were tested for agglutinations with "typical strain" streptococci Among these control serums were 79 from rheumatic fever and 16 from osteoarthritis result of this study, the authors concluded that the serums of a high percentage of patients with rheumatoid arthritis gave strong agglutination reactions with a biologically specific type of hemolytic streptococcus Gray and Gowen (5), and Dawson, Olmstead and Boots (6) have in the main confirmed these observations

THE PRESENT STUDY

In order to obtain further information concerning this phenomenon, routine agglutination tests were carried out with "typical strain' AB13 on the serums of all patients admitted to the arthritis department of the

¹ This study was carried on with the technical assistance of Edith L Ross, Edna H Lindsey, Edith M Kirkpatrick, and Elnora B Carmichael

Cornell Clinic during a two-year period These tests were repeated, when possible, at intervals throughout the patient's period of observation The purpose of this paper is to present an analysis of the findings in this study Unless otherwise stated, all agglutination results reported refer to those at the time of the patient's first visit to the Clinic

Seven hundred and thirty-three cases are included—a few had to be discarded either because a diagnosis could not be made or because the patients were suffering from diseases other than arthritis The incidence of each disease is given in Table 1

TABLE 1
Tabulation of diseases studied

| Disease | Number of cases |
|----------------------------|-----------------|
| Rheumatoid arthritis | 613 |
| Ostearthritis | 44 |
| Monarticular arthritis | 41 |
| Rheumatic fever | 14 |
| Gonococcus arthritis | 16 |
| Gout | 4 |
| Intermittent hydrarthrosis | 1 |
| | |
| Total | 733 |

AGGLUTINATION TECHNIC

The method of performing the agglutination test was similar to that previously described (3) and so need not be explained in detail. No dilutions were made beyond 1 5120. Each test was controlled with a serum that was known to possess no streptococcus agglutinins and with a tube containing 0.5 cc of broth and 0.5 cc of culture. All agglutinations were heated in a water bath at 56° C for two hours. The tubes were then placed in a refrigerator and readings were made the following morning. The last dilution in which definite clumping of the bacteria could be detected by the naked eye was recorded as the agglutination titer.

The agglutination tests on each specimen were carried out on two consecutive days and if the readings thus obtained did not correspond, the procedure was repeated until the titer was accurately ascertained

Occasionally the antigen showed a tendency to become granular This proclivity was usually overcome by daily transferring the culture to fresh blood broth mediums over a period of several days. Subculturing in broth containing 0.2 per cent disodium hydrogen phosphate, in place of the 1.5 sodium chloride, was also found to encourage diffuse growth of the organisms

RHEUMATOID ARTHRITIS

Six hundred and thirteen patients were diagnosed as suffering from rheumatoid arthritis—none were included in this group who had symptoms in one joint only For convenience, the patients were allotted to one of three groups, according to the degree of joint involvement. The first group includes those who complained of pain in the joints, but failed to show any periarticular swelling, the symptoms were usually migratory in character and tenderness was frequently found. The second group is comprised of those who presented the usual picture of rheumatoid arthritis with characteristic periarticular swelling, generally including fusiform fingers. The third group is similar to the second, but is made up of patients who were in a more advanced stage of the disease—deformities such as ulnar deviation, and partial or complete ankylosis of one or more joints characterize this group. These three groups are indicated by +, ++, and +++, respectively, and the number and percentage of patients in each group are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
Tabulation of patients with rheumatoid arthritis

| Group | Number of patients | Per cent |
|-------|--------------------|----------|
| + | 310 | 50 6 |
| ++ | 241 | 39 3 |
| +++ | 62 | 10 1 |
| | | |
| Total | 613 | 100 0 |

In several tables and figures reference is made to mean agglutination titers. These group averages are computed by multiplying each figure representing a dilution of serum by the number of serums agglutinating at that titer, adding these products and dividing the sum by the total number of serums included in the group

In order that insignificant information be not included in the tables and figures, titers of 1 20 and 1 40 have been recorded as negative

Relation of incidence of disease to age of patient

In Figure 1 the age incidence of patients belonging to each of the three groups (+, ++, +++) is indicated. Only one patient under ten years of age was seen with rheumatoid arthritis, and only seven, in the second decade of life, while there was a sharp falling off after sixty years of age. That rheumatoid arthritis is chiefly a disease of middle life is clearly shown in Figure 1. The small proportion over 60 years of age may be due in part to the failure of patients at this age to seek medical advice, but no such reasoning is applicable to the low incidence in patients of twenty years of age or under. It must, therefore, be concluded that rheumatoid arthritis is a relatively rare disease during the first two decades of life. While the three curves are nearly parallel, there is a distinct tendency in the + group to mark its maximum incidence at an earlier age than do the others.

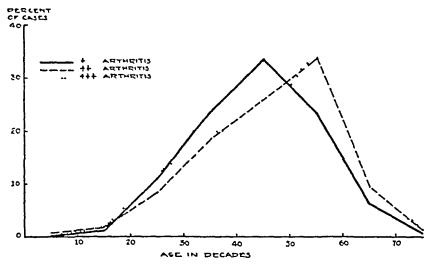


Fig 1 Relationship of Incidence of Disease to Age of Patients in Rheumatoid Arthritis (613 Cases)

Relation of agglutination titer to degree of joint involvement

In a previous study of agglutination reactions with rheumatoid arthritis serums a selection of patients with marked joint involvement was used. Of the 110 serums then examined, 93 6 per cent showed definite agglutination to a titer of 1 640 or more (3). In the present study of 613 cases all stages of rheumatoid arthritis are represented. In Figure 2

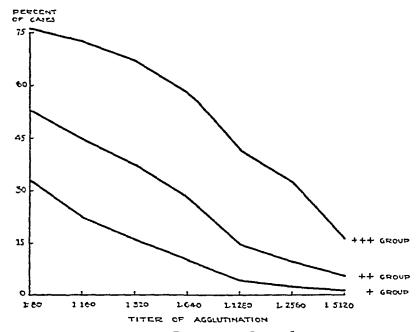


Fig 2 Relation of Degree of Joint Involvement to Total Agglutination (613 Cases)

is indicated the total agglutinations for each of the three groups. The highest degree of agglutination was found in the class with advanced rheumatoid arthritis (+++), while a distinctly higher agglutination was found in the moderately advanced group than in the mild cases without swelling (+) From these results it is evident that, on an average, the more advanced the joint involvement, the higher the titer of agglutination

Relation of agglutination titer to duration of disease

The agglutination titer in rheumatoid arthritis with relation to the duration of the disease is indicated in Table 3 and Figure 3. In 8 cases of disease duration of one month or less there was not the slightest evidence of the presence of agglutinins. In 45 cases of disease duration

TABLE 3

Results of agglutination tests in rheumatoid arthritis in relation to duration of disease

| Duration | Cases | Neg ative | Titer of agglutination | | | | | | | Mean |
|---|---|--|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|---|
| Durgeton | | ative | 1 80 | 1 160 | 1 320 | 1 640 | 1 1280 | 1.2560 | 1.5120 | titer |
| One month or under Over 1 month to 3 months Over 3 months to 6 months Over 6 months to 1 year Over 1 year to 3 years Over 3 years to 5 years Over 5 years | 8 45 66 92 126 88 188 | 8 30 31 49 62 42 115 | 6 5 14 10 11 7 | 5 6 4 5 8 13 | 2 5 9 12 5 13 | 1 11 8 16 9 17 | 3 1 8 6 7 | 2 3 7 4 7 | 1 3 4 6 3 9 | 0 1 171 1 520 1 426 1 591 1 486 1 482 |

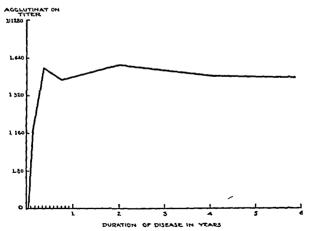


Fig 3 Mean Agglutination Titer in Rheumatoid Arthritis in Relation to Duration of Disease (613 Cases)

from one to three months the highest agglutination titer recorded with one exception was 1 640 and the mean was 1 171. In the group having the disease from three to six months, 3 showed an agglutination titer of 1 5120, while the average was 1 520. In the groups covering a disease duration of over six months little variation was noted, the line on the graph closely approaching a straight one. A similar analysis, employing only cases in groups ++ and +++, revealed a curve similar to that when all three groups were used

From these results it is evident that it takes six months, on the average, for a patient to develop hemolytic streptococcus agglutinins to the maximum titer, but that aside from this initial period the duration of the disease plays no important part in the strength of the agglutination reaction. Dawson, Olmstead and Boots (6), reporting a series of 153 cases, stated that the agglutination titer increased with the duration of the disease. Our findings do not confirm this conclusion.

Relation of agglutination liter to age of patient

In Table 4 and Figure 4 the results of the agglutination tests in rheumatoid arthritis are arranged in relation to the age of the patients. A boy of seven with moderately advanced rheumatoid arthritis was the only patient under 10 years of age seen in the arthritis clinic. His serum

| TABLE 4 | |
|--|--------|
| Results of agglutination tests in rheumatoid arthritis in relation to age of p | atient |
| | |

| A === | Cases | Neg | Titer of arglutination | | | | | | | Menn |
|------------|-------|-------|------------------------|-------|-------|-------|--------|--------|--------|-------|
| Age | Cases | ative | 1 80 | 1 160 | 1 320 | 1 640 | 1 1280 | 1 2560 | 1 5120 | titer |
| sears | | | | | | | | | | |
| Under 10 | 1 | |] | | | 1 | | ļ | ŀ | } |
| 10 to 19 | 7 | 4 | 1 | | | 2 | | ļ | ŀ | 1 194 |
| 20 to 29 | 62 | 34 | 8 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 5 | 1 616 |
| 30 to 39 | 129 | 64 | 18 | 9 | 9 | 9 | 9 | 7 | 4 | 1 476 |
| 40 to 49 | 184 | 108 | 10 | 12 | 16 | 21 | 3 | 5 | 9 | 1 457 |
| 50 to 59 | 174 | 94 | 12 | 15 | 13 | 19 | 9 | 6 | 6 | 1 444 |
| 60 to 69 | 50 | 30 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 5 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 1 403 |
| 70 or over | 6 | 3 | 1 | | 1 | 1 | 1 | | | |

showed an agglutination titer of 1 640 with "typical strain" strepto-coccus AB13. There were but 7 patients between ten and nineteen years of age—serums from 2 of these gave an agglutination titer of 1 640, from 1 a titer of 1 80, and from 4 there were negative findings, with a mean agglutination titer for the group of 1 194. The age period covering the third decade gave, on an average, the highest titer of agglutination, while in the periods following there was a slight gradual drop all the way to the last group which included patients seventy years of age or older

Dawson, Olmstead and Boots (6) reporting a sharply progressive in crease in the median agglutination titers of patients in the third, fourth and fifth decades, concluded that "the property of rheumatoid arthritis serum responsible for the agglutination of hemolytic streptococci is definitely related to the age of the patient" Our results do not agree with their findings. When, however, groups +, + and + of our series are plotted individually, group + tends to show increased titers of agglutination in the fourth, fifth and sixth decades. It seems probable then that the series of cases reported by Dawson, Olmstead and Boots is preponderantly made up of cases corresponding to those in group + + of the present series. In the opinion of the writers, a more accurate impression of the relation of age to the titer of agglutination can be obtained from the study of the disease as a whole than from an analysis of certain of its phases

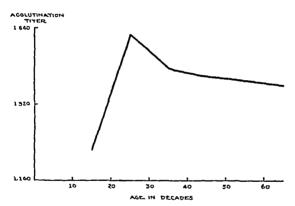


Fig 4 Mean Agglutination Titer in Rheumatoid Arthritis in Rela tion to Age of Patient (606 Cases Between the Ages of 10 and 69)

In the present series, the number of patients in the first, second and eighth decades of life is too small to draw any definite conclusions con cerning their agglutination reactions with "typical strain" streptococci. It seems probable, however, that in patients under twenty years of age the agglutination titer averages lower than in patients over that age. This impression receives support by the findings in a study of agglutinins in the serums of six patients in Bellevue Hospital suffering from Still's disease, a condition accepted by many as rheumatoid arthritis in early childhood. Although the same technic was carried out, negative results were obtained in each case. It is doubtful if a lower titer in patients under twenty years of age has any significance because during that period rheumat

thritis is uncommon and when it does occur it assumes atypical forms, frequently resembling rheumatic fever

In summing up the relationship of the age of the patient to the agglutination titer, one is led to the conclusion that with the possible exception of the first two decades of life the age of the patient plays no important role in the strength of the agglutination reaction

Relation of agglutination titer to time of year

Clinically, it is generally recognized that in temperate climates patients with rheumatoid arthritis are usually at their worst in cold weather and at their best in hot weather. In order to ascertain if there is any seasonal variation in the agglutination titers in this disease Table 5 was prepared

TABLE 5

Results * of agglutination tests in rheumatoid arthritis in relation to season of year

| Season | Cases | Neg | Titer of agglutination | | | | | | | Mean |
|--------|-------|-------|------------------------|-------|-------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Season | Cares | ative | 1 80 | 1 160 | 1 320 | 1 640 | 1 1280 | 1 2560 | 1 5120 | titer |
| Winter | 98 | 33 | 12 | 8 | 9 | 17 | 8 | 7 | 4 | 1 660 |
| Spring | 79 | 30 | 3 | 4 | 7 | 16 | 3 | 5 | 11 | 1 1074 |
| Summer | 46 | 30 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 1 548 |
| Autumn | 80 | 35 | 4 | 6 | 12 | 7 | 4 | 7 | 5 | 1 728 |

^{*}Total of 303 cases—groups ++ and +++ only

Cases of arthritis in groups ++ and +++ were selected as patients in the more advanced stages appeared to show the greatest seasonal varia-In the table, "Winter" is used to designate the period from January 1 to March 31, "Spring," from April 1 to June 30, "Summer," from July 1 to September 30, and "Autumn," from October 1 to December 31 The findings are interesting. The mean agglutination titer of 79 patients studied in the spring was 1 1074, while that of 46 studied in the summer The mean titers during the autumn and winter were was only 1 548 728 and 1 660 respectively Due to the small number of cases in this series and the distribution of the agglutination titers entering into the means, the degree of probability of chance occurrence of the differences between the means is too high to warrant any definite conclusions Nevertheless the results are at least suggestive that on the average the agglutination titers are higher in the spring and lower in the summer than at other seasons of the year

Relation of liter of agglutination to clinical changes

Initial agglutination tests on all patients were repeated at irregular intervals throughout each period of observation. Condensed protocols of those subjected to the test four or more times appear in Table 6. The

TIBLE 6
Patients with repeated agglutinations

| | Clinical condition during observation | Unchanged Gradually wrone Unchanged |
|---------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|
| | Titer | 1.5120 1.5120 neg. neg. |
| | Date | 6/12/31 3/11/3 3/11/3 5/2/32 |
| | Titer | 15120 15120 15120 1520 1530 1530 1530 1530 1540 1640 1640 1640 1640 1640 1640 1640 16 |
| | Date | 4/99/31 1512 7/4/32 1640 4/13/32 13 0 5/13/32 13 0 5/13/32 13 0 5/13/32 13 0 5/13/32 13 0 1/5/32 13 0 1/5/32 15 0 5/13/32 1640 5/13/32 1640 5/13/32 1640 5/13/32 1640 5/13/32 1640 5/13/32 1640 5/13/32 1640 5/13/32 1640 5/13/32 1640 5/13/33 1640 5/13/32 1640 5/13/ |
| | Titer | 17:59 13:20 13:00 |
| Results of agglutinations | Date | 4,754 d. 1.18 |
| a of a gal | Titer | 12500 12500 11500 11500 11500 11500 11500 11500 11500 11500 11500 11500 11500 11500 11500 11500 |
| Result | Date | 4118/31 4118/31 4118/31 6679/31 6679/31 930/31 930/31 930/31 930/31 930/31 930/31 930/31 930/31 930/31 930/31 930/31 930/31 |
| | Titer | 157.0 |
| | Date | 111371 21161 |
| | Ilter | 1510 640 1640 1640 1640 1640 1640 1750 1750 1750 1750 1750 1750 1750 175 |
| | Date | 127-9730 147030 |
| Joint | went ment | |
| Dura | discase | 1 year 5 Sover 5 Sover 5 Sover 5 Sover 6 Sover |
| V Ec | | \$ -68848888888888888888888888888888888888 |
| 25 | | K A AKAMAMAKKAK KAMAMAKAMAKAMA |
| fig Pa | 12 | |

findings on one patient who had but three examinations were included because of their special interest

Patients 1 to 15, inclusive, showed no appreciable change in clinical condition throughout the observation period. In these cases the titers of agglutination evidenced a strong tendency to remain at a constant level

In contrast to the findings on the fifteen patients mentioned are those of patients 16 to 28 who showed definite clinical improvement, sometimes with complete recovery In this group the serums tended either to agglutinate at lower levels or else to completely disappear, but generally the strength of the agglutination did not show signs of diminishing until some weeks or months after the patient began to improve clinically 19 illustrates this proclivity very well This patient with a history of polyarthritis of only ten weeks standing, whose illness was running a subacute course, presented the typical features of rheumatoid arthritis at the time of his first visit An agglutination test at that time (December 20, 1930) gave negative results The patient showed constant improvement dating from the time of his first visit and was entirely free from signs and symptoms on January 13, 1931 In spite of this clinical improvement, the agglutination titer continued to rise for one month and only began to fall after the patient was entirely free from signs and symptoms of the disease

Patient 23, with a more chronic form of the disease, illustrates the same process. With a history of rheumatoid arthritis of three years duration she showed marked improvement from the Spring of 1931, yet it was several months before the agglutination titer began to diminish and not until one year later that the agglutinins disappeared completely

Patients 29 and 30 illustrate the tendency of the agglutination titers to rise and fall with changes in the clinical condition. At their first visit both of these patients presented the picture of a very mild and early rheumatoid arthritis. While under treatment their conditions gradually became very much worse, with a definite increase in the agglutinin content of their serums. At a still later period the arthritis showed definite abatement, which condition was followed by a diminution of streptococcus agglutinins in the serums, evidenced by a lower agglutination titer.

In summing up the results of repeated agglutination reactions in rheumatoid arthritis, it is apparent that the agglutinin content in the patient's serum is related to his clinical condition, tending to increase gradually during the development of the disease, and to decrease gradually with the recovery of the patient. There seems also to be considerable individual variation in the time required for clinical change to be manifested in the agglutination reactions.

OTHER FORMS OF ARTHRITIS

The results of agglutination tests in other forms of arthritis seen during the period of this study are presented in Table 7

| TABLE 7 |
|--|
| Results of agglutination tests in other forms of arthritis |

| Discase | Neg ative | Titer of agglutination | | | | | | Cases | |
|---|--------------------------------|------------------------|-------|-------|-------|--------|--------|--------|---------------------------|
| Discuse | | 1 80 | 1 160 | 1 320 | 1 640 | 1 1280 | 1 2560 | 1 5120 | 1 |
| Ostearthritis Monarticular arthritis Rheumatic fever Gonococcus arthritis Gout Intermittent hydrarthrosis | 38 33 11 14 4 1 | 6 4 1 2 | 1 1 | 2 | 1 | | | | 44 41 14 16 4 |

Forty four patients were diagnosed as suffering from ostearthritis—special care being taken not to confuse true ostearthritis with rheumatoid arthritis showing secondary ostearthritic changes. All of these patients were over forty years of age and not one serum of the 44 gave an agglu tination reaction to a titer higher than 1—80, while 38 were completely negative.

In the group classified as monarticular arthritis are included, for convenience, cases of spondylitis. Probably some of these 41 cases were of infectious origin of the rheumatoid arthritis type, but because of the un certainty of diagnosis they were segregated in this way, 33 gave negative results to agglutination tests, while the highest titer recorded by the remaining 8 was 1 640

Fourteen patients suffered from rheumatic fever Eleven gave negative agglutinations, while the highest titer recorded was 1 320

Sixteen cases of gonococcus arthritis were seen. A diagnosis made from the history of the association of gonococcus urethritis with the onset of joint symptoms was frequently confirmed by positive findings in a complement fixation test. The highest agglutination recorded for this group was at a titer of 1 80

Four cases of gout and one of intermittent hydrarthrosis gave completely negative reactions

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Seven hundred and thirty three patients with chronic arthritis were studied by agglutination tests with "typical strain" streptococcus AB13

In this aggregation rheumatoid arthritis was the predominating disease, as 613 of the patients were suffering from that affection. The age incidence in this group was an interesting feature. Only one patient under ten years of age was seen and there was a gradual increase up to and including the sixth decade, following which there was a sharp drop. The maximum incidence of patients without joint swelling occurred at a some what earlier age than the highest number with joint swelling.

A previous article by the present authors showed that the serums of a high percentage of selected patients with well-developed rheumatoid arthritis gave strong agglutination reactions with a specific type of hemolytic streptococcus. In the present study, all types of rheumatoid arthritis are included and a more detailed analysis of the results has been made.

Apparently, the degree of joint involvement is an important factor in the strength of the agglutination reaction, as the tests proved that the more marked the joint involvement, the higher the agglutination titer Moreover, as the amount of joint involvement is generally considered to be commensurate with the severity of the disease, it does not seem unfair to assume that as the arthritis increases in severity more evidence is found of streptococcus agglutinins in the serum

An analysis of the agglutination reaction in relation to the duration of the disease reveals the fact that it takes several weeks following the onset of the disease for the streptococcus agglutinins to become apparent in the serum, and that the maximum titer is not obtained until an average of six months has elapsed Except in this relation, the duration of the disease appears to play no important role in the agglutination phenomenon

The age of the patient, likewise, showed little effect on the strength of the agglutination reaction. An exception must be made, however, in the first two decades of life. Although one patient seven years of age gave a definite agglutination to a titer of 1 640, the tendency was for the titer in subjects of this age to be weaker and more irregular. As has already been pointed out, little significance can be attached to this observation because such patients seldom manifest the typical clinical picture of rheumatoid arthritis, their signs and symptoms frequently resembling those of rheumatic fever, a disease that does not give positive results in tests with "typical strain" streptococci

Of particular significance are the findings in patients subjected to repeated agglutination tests extending over a period of months or years. The results of these tests are remarkably consistent as the serums of patients in whom the disease appears to be stationary continue to give similar agglutination titers throughout the period of observation. In patients fortunate enough to show marked improvement or complete recovery, on the other hand, the streptococcus agglutinins either diminish or completely disappear from the blood. Sometimes this is accomplished in a few weeks, sometimes it takes months or even years.

With the information at hand concerning the agglutination reaction in rheumatoid arthritis, it would seem justifiable to consider the nature of this phenomenon. Unfortunately, we do not have a chronic disease that affords a comparison and must, perforce, compare it with an acute disease, such as typhoid fever. In typhoid the Widal reaction is considered to be an immunological one. Following the onset of the disease,

there is a definite interval of several days before a positive typhoid ag glutination can be obtained. In the succeeding days or weeks the strength of the reaction tends to increase, while on recovery of the patient it slowly diminishes and in the course of several months or years even tually disappears. In rheumatoid arthritis a similar situation exists. The only essential factor in which it differs from that in typhoid fever is the time element. In typhoid the agglutination changes are apparent after periods of days—in arthritis, after periods of weeks or months. This would seem to be a natural disparity between the processes in an acute and a chronic disease. Although not irrefutably proven, these findings afford strong evidence that the presence of streptococcus agglutinins in such high titers is a true immunological response to a bacterial invader similar in all essential respects to that seen in typhoid fever.

In contrast to the positive results obtained from agglutination tests in rheumatoid arthritis are the negative results in ostearthritis, gonococcus arthritis, rheumatic fever, and gout A knowledge of this reaction is of practical value in differential diagnosis. A positive reaction at titers of 1 320 or higher is indicative of rheumatoid arthritis but the reverse does not hold true because a small percentage of patients even though they present the typical picture of rheumatoid arthritis have serums that give negative agglutination results with "typical strain" streptococci

CONCLUSIONS

- 1 A high percentage of patients with rheumatoid arthritis give positive agglutination reactions to a specific type of hemolytic streptococcus
- 2 In patients with advanced joint involvement higher average titers are obtained than in those with less involvement
- 3 The duration of the disease and the age of the patient play unimportant roles in the strength of the agglutination
- 4 Following the onset of the disease, there is a gradual increase in the agglutination titer which reaches its maximum in 6 months, on the average, while following recovery of the patient the agglutinins tend to diminish and eventually to disappear
- 5 This reaction of serum in rheumatoid arthritis appears to be a true immunological response
- 6 Other forms of arthritis do not give positive results in agglutination tests with typical strain streptococci

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GASTRO-INTESTINAL STUDIES II PANCREATIC ENZYMES IN PERNICIOUS ANEMIA

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(Received for publication December 5 1932)

In a previous article (1) an attempt was made to correlate the findings in the gastric juice of patients having pernicious anemia with the clinical condition of the patients, the degree of central nervous system involvement present, and the maintenance dose of liver extract. Little or no correlation could be found, therefore, this study of the duodenal contents of patients having pernicious anemia was undertaken. The work of Castle and his associates (2) also indicated that additional studies on the digestion of proteins in cases of pernicious anemia should be carried out.

Ehrmann and Lederer (3) (1908) were the first to describe the results of duodenal analyses in cases of achylia gastrica, normal or slightly higher values being found by them Einhorn (4) (1910) reported the results of the examination of 7 cases of achylia gastrica, in which 4 had normal trypsin values, 1 a low value, and 2 a complete absence of trypsin. In 1914 he reported (5) two cases of achylia gastrica with chronic pancreatitis in which there was an absence of trypsin but in which the other duodenal enzymes were approximately normal. He found (6) high enzymatic activity in the duodenal contents of 3 other cases with achylia gastrica, in 1918

Crohn (7), in 1913, recorded a case of gastric achylia in which there were normal amounts of all duodenal enzymes except pancreatic rennin In 1915, he (8) stated that "in my present series, consisting of over 120 cases, 103 cases are regarded as presenting normal pancreatic function, these include many pathological conditions, gastric lesions, benign and malignant, achylia gastrica, organic syphilis, exophthalmic goitre, secondary and primary anemias, malignant growths of various organs, diabetes mellitus, etc." Chace and Myers (9), in 1913, reported 1 case of pernicious anemia and 3 other cases of achylia gastrica in which there were normal amounts of duodenal enzymes. White (10), in 1916, studied another case of pernicious anemia and 3 other cases of achylia gastrica, all four having normal or high pancreatic enzyme values. In 1922, McClure and Jones (11), after studying two cases of pernicious anemia in severe relapse and two other cases of achylia gastrica, concluded that "in achylia gastrica and pernicious anemia no abnormalities in activity of

the external secretory function of the pancreas were demonstrable, as measured by the enzyme determination of the duodenal contents" 1922, Roth and Sternberg (12) reported 6 cases of achylia gastrica in which the pancreatic enzymes were present Kahn (13) also, in 1923, described one case of sprue with gastric and pancreatic achylia The pancreatic achylia disappeared on proper diet, although the gastric achylia McClure, Montague, and Mortimer (14), in 1924, found another case of achylia gastrica in which the pancreas functioned normally both as to enzymes and alkaline fluid Silverman and Denis (15), in 1924, observed one case of achylia gastrica with approximately normal duodenal enzymes Piersol and Bockus (16) recorded the findings in 3 rather low trypsin activity, while, in the third, trypsin was absent in one examination and present in a higher percentage than normal in another Landau et al. (17), in 1926, reported 4 cases of pernicious anemia in which there was both gastric and pancreatic achylia By 1929 Landau and Glass (18) had collected 9 cases of pernicious anemia with both gastric and pancreatic achylia (Four of these had been reported in their previous article) They stated that, since the introduction of duodenal and gastric analyses, they had done daily examinations and these nine cases were the only ones in which both gastric and pancreatic achylia was found

Martin (19), in 1927, found normal amounts of trypsin and diastase in the duodenal contents of two cases of achylia gastrica. Okada et al (20), in 1929, after studying the pancreatic enzymes of 7 cases of achylia gastrica stated that "evidence that the pancreatic secretion was disturbed as the consequence of disturbed gastric secretion was not found." Cheney and Niemand (21), in 1932, stated that fasting gastric contents contain approximately the same concentration of pancreatic enzymes as the fasting duodenal contents. They made determinations of trypsin on the fasting gastric contents of 10 cases of pernicious anemia in relapse and in 9 of these there was an absence of trypsin, while, in the other, only a small amount of trypsin was found. In 60 other cases (mainly achylias) normal amounts of trypsin were found in the fasting gastric contents.

In the series of experiments reported in this paper, we have attempted not only to evaluate the enzymatic activity of the pancreas, but to determine, as well, the ability of the duodenum to activate the trypsinogen secreted by the pancreas. To do this we have ascertained the tryptic power of the duodenal contents before and after incubation with enterokinase prepared from the duodenal mucosa of hogs.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Five young, healthy adults without evidence of disease and having had previous normal gastric analyses were used as controls. All of the 22 cases of

pernicious anemia were typical clinically and hematologically and had previous complete gastric analyses. In Table I the clinical and hematological findings in the 22 cases of pernicious anemia are recorded. The results of the gastric analyses in 16 of the 22 patients have been reported previously (1)

TABLE 1

The clinical and hematological status of the 22 cases of pernicious anemia

| Case number | Age | Red blood cells | Hemoglobin (Newcomer) | Daily maintenance dose of liver extract no 343—derived from grams liver | Central nerv ous system involvement |
|----------------|-------|----------------------|--------------------------|---|---|
| | years | millions per c mm | per cent | | |
| 1 | 78 | 2 90 | 65 | 4 | Moderate |
| 2 | 62 | 4 89 | 78 | Intravenous* | Advanced |
| 2 | 59 | 4 86 | 84 | 300 | Advanced |
| 4 5 | 58 | 5 19 | 92 | 300 | Advanced |
| 5 | 54 | 4 54 | 84 | Intravenous | Early |
| 6 7 | 46 | 2 99 | 49 |] | Early |
| 7 | 55 | 5 64 | 94 | 300 | Advanced |
| 8 | 71 | 4 14 | 86 | 50 | Early |
| 9 | 49 | 4 93 | 73 | j ' | Advanced† |
| 10 | 58 | 5 10 | 78 | Intravenous | Early |
| 11 | 46 | 4 63 | 69 | Intramuscular | Moderate† |
| 12 | 72 | 5 60 | 86 | Intravenous | Advanced |
| 13 | 64 | 4 68 | 83 | Intramuscular | Advanced† |
| 14 | 66 | 5 31 | 110 | 300 | Advanced |
| 15 | 42 | 5 65 | 101 | 300 | Early |
| 16 | 54 | 5 28 | 83 | Intravenous | None |
| 17 | 48 | 4 73 | 88 | i 1 | Early |
| 18 | 58 | 5 08 | 89 | 400 | Moderate |
| 19 | 54 | 1 15 | 25 | [| Advanced |
| 20 | 48 | 4 95 | 84 | [400] | Early |
| 21 | 62 | 1 73 | 31 | [| Advanced |
| 22 | 58 | 1 16 | 27 | | Advanced |

^{*} Those patients now receiving intravenous or intramuscular liver extract at weekly intervals had previously been unable to maintain the blood at normal levels while receiving at least the amount of liver extract derived from 300 grams of whole liver daily by mouth

No food or drink was given to the subjects between the evening meal and the morning of the test. Early in the morning the fasting gastric contents were removed by means of a Rehfuss tube while the subject was in a semi recumbent position. The subject then swallowed the tube to approximately the 75 cm mark and was turned onto the right side. After the subject had rested in this position for from $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ of an hour, an attempt was made to local ize the position of the tube. To localize the tube the following procedures were followed

1 Auscultation was performed over the epigastrium during the injection of air into the tube (As stated by Richards (22), if the tip of the tube was in the stomach a loud cavernous sound was transmitted to the ear of the examiner but if it was in the duodenum, a more distant, muffled, high pitched sound was heard)

[†] Patients showing recent improvement in neurological conditions

2 Sensation of the subject on the injection of the air was noted (Many of the patients noticed a distinct difference in sensation when the air was injected into the duodenum. The injected air was felt much deeper and very quickly could be felt passing through the intestines.)

3 The rapid disappearance of the acid injected was observed

4 Persistence of deep bile color to the fluid on removal was noted

If the above requirements were fulfilled, it was thought that the tip of the tube was in the duodenum and that the fluoroscope was not absolutely necessary to verify the position of the tube. Fluoroscopic examination probably would have helped in several instances in passing the tube into the duodenum, as, occasionally, it was necessary to wait three hours or longer and to change the position of the subject and the tube many times before the tube dropped into the duodenum. On a few occasions the examination was unsuccessful as the tube would not pass into the duodenum.

After localizing the tube, 30 cc of 0.2 per cent hydrochloric acid was injected into the tube. One minute later an attempt was made to remove the acid. If most of the acid had disappeared at that time, continuous suction was applied to the tube after five minutes. Two 30 minute samples of duodenal secretions were collected.

The duodenal or gastric juice was measured in a graduated cylinder and filtered through paper. The color was noted and the pH was determined colorimetrically. Only the results of those samples which were neutral or alkaline were considered to be of value. Silverman and Denis (15) and Wadsworth and Aaron (23) showed the value of this precaution. Our own experience has also taught us that acid duodenal contents gave much lower enzyme values.

Amvlase and lipase were determined by the methods described by McClure, Wetmore, and Revnolds (24) However, in the lipase determination, 1 cc of duodenal juice was diluted to 5 cc with 0.33 molar phosphate buffer instead of to 50 cc Our lower lipase values may be due to the difference in the stimulus used or in the cottonseed oil emulsion

To determine the tryptic activity of the duodenal juice, 1 cc of the juice was diluted to 10 cc with distilled water, and 5 cc was used for analyses by the method of Koch and Helmer (25) described below. The total tryptic content (trypsin plus trypsinogen) was determined by adding 1 cc of a 2 per cent solution of enterokinase to 1 cc of duodenal juice, making the total volume to 10 cc with distilled water, and incubating for 30 minutes at 40° C. Five cc of the activated solution was then used for the analysis of its tryptic power. The enterokinase was prepared from duodenal mucous membrane of hogs. The mucous membrane previously had been dehydrated and defatted by means of acetone and ether.

The details of the method for the determination of trypsin are as follows. The casein solution, which was used as a substrate, was prepared by shaking 75 grams of Vierck's casein (according to Hammarsten) with 500 cc. of distilled water in a 2 liter flask until the casein was in a finely divided state. Then 500 cc. of 0.8 per cent sodium carbonate was added and the mixture shalen until the casein was disolved. If preserved with toluene, the solution will beep several days in the ice box.

For the determination, 80 cc of the casein solution was measured into an Erlenmever flash of 125 cc capacity, and enough 0.4 per cent sodium carbonate was added so that the total volume was 100 cc upon the addition of the substance to be tested. The casein solution was then allowed to come to 40° C and the trypsin was added. The mixture was stirred well to insure homogeneity, and 25 cc was pipetted into a small beal er or flash containing 3.6 cc of

normal acetic acid and about 1 gram of talc (It is important to stir vigorously while adding the casein to the acid to insure a good precipitation). The remaining solution was allowed to digest for 4 hours at 40° C. The 25 cc. of the solution above served as a blank. The precipitated casein was removed by filtration through a good quantitative paper and the refractive index was read at 25° C by means of a Bausch and Lomb immersion refractometer

At the end of the digestion period, exactly 4 hours, the flask was removed from the incubator and, again, 25 cc of the solution was pipetted off and the undigested casein precipitated as before. The difference in the refractive index of the blank and the 4 hour filtrate was the index of the amount of digestion. The refractive index changes were recorded in scale readings of the refractioneter. Since the filtrate from the casein precipitation was water clear, no difficulty was encountered in securing constant readings with the refractometer.

In order to have a standard with which to compare the tryptic activity a standard curve was made by determining the change in refractive index caused by quantities of U S P pancreatin, ranging from 1 mgm to 20 mgm per 100 cc of casein solution. The refractive index changes caused by known concentrations of a 0.4 per cent sodium carbonate solution of U S P pancreatin are shown in Table II, and the data from Table II are plotted in Chart 1

TABLE II

Change in refractive index readings at 25° C produced by known concentrations of U S P
pancreatin

Change in

| Pancreatin | Change in refractive index scale readings smmersion |
|------------|---|
| mgm | refractometer |
| 1 | 0 72 |
| 2 | 1 20 |
| 4 | 2 10 |
| 6 | 3 35 |
| 8 | 4 18 |
| 10 | 5 36 |
| 15 | 7 45 |
| 20 | 9 17 |

To rule out the possibility of pepsin interfering with the trypsin determination, 5 cc of normal gastric juice with a high pepsin content was allowed to act on casein in the manner outlined above. The gastric juice had no proteolytic activity under these conditions

RESULTS IN NORMAL SUBJECTS

In Table III are tabulated the results in normal subjects The fasting gastric contents all contained a trace of trypsin and lipase In the samples with acid reaction the amylase was entirely absent. The one specimen which was alkaline had considerable amylolytic power, due, no doubt, to the presence of saliva. This sample also had the greatest tryptic activity.

In the duodenal specimens in which the reaction was neutral or alka line, the results were quite uniform. Again it was noted that the acid reaction completely inactivated the amylolytic enzyme and maried!

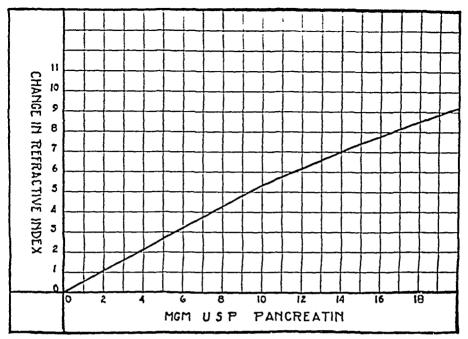


CHART 1 CHANGE IN REFRACTIVE INDEX READINGS AT 25° C PRODUCED BY KNOWN CONCENTRATIONS OF U S P PANCREATIN

TABLE III

The volume, color, pH, trypsin before and after actuation with enterokinase, lipase, and amylase in the fasting gastric juice and in the duodenal contents following acid stimulation in normal individuals

| Case num ber | Date | Specimen | Vol ume | Color | рΉ | Try p- | Try p- sin and try p sin- ogen | Lip ase | Amy l ase |
|--------------------|--------------|--|-----------------|------------------------------|-------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| | 1932 | | cc | | | mgm per cc | mgm per cc | cc λ/10 NaOH | mgm glu cose |
| 1 | September 6 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 28 80 30 | Negative Yellow Yellow | 18 74 74 | 13 3 | 1 8 27 5 32 9 | 0 0 3 2 3 5 | 0 0 2 1 2 9 |
| 2 | September 8 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 23 95 12 | Bile Yellow Yellow | 7 6 7 8 7 8 | 14 2 | 3 9 27 7 42 7 | 0 2 2 7 4 2 | 1 3 1 0 2 6 |
| 3 | September 22 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 35 64 46 | Bile Yellon Yellon | 13 76 47 | 163 | 1 0 20 6 13 0 | 0 2 2 6 1 6 | 0 0 1 6 0 0 |
| 4 | October 6 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 17 110 65 | Negative Amber Amber | | 1 8 13 2 15 9 | 2 2 25 2 31 0 | 0 2 2 8 4 3 | 0 0 0 9 1 5 |
| 5 | October 11 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 70 107 | Bile Yellow | 20 70 | 1 0 12 2 | 1 2 22 0 | 0 1 2 8 | 09 09 |

creased the lipolytic and tryptic activity. It was interesting to observe the relatively large amount of trypsinogen that was present in the normal duodenal contents. After activation, the tryptic power of the juice was increased 83 per cent. We believe that the determination of the tryptic power after activation with enterokinase may offer a more accurate index of pancreatic function, since at least two factors must be considered as playing a role in determining the amount of tryptic activity in the duo denal juice—namely, the ability of the pancreas to secrete trypsinogen and the ability of duodenal mucosa to supply enterokinase to activate it

RESULTS IN PERNICIOUS ANEMIA

In Table IV the results of the analyses of the gastric and duodenal contents in the 22 cases of pernicious anemia are recorded. The fasting gastric samples contained only small amounts of trypsin and lipase, except in the samples containing bile where there was a noticeable increase in the amount of these enzymes in most cases. Many of the fasting gastric samples contained a greater amount of amylase than the duodenal samples. This was undoubtedly due to the presence of saliva in the fasting gastric contents, since patients with pernicious anemia have no acid in the fasting gastric contents to destroy the amylase of the saliva

There was an increase in tryptic and lipolytic activity over the fasting gastric findings in all of the duodenal samples. The average of the tryptic activity in the half hour duodenal samples of the 22 cases of pernicious anemia, before activation with enterokinase, was 15 2 mgm per cc and 21.5 mgm per cc following the activation. The value obtained before activation was approximately the same as that found in normal persons, but the value after activation was distinctly lower There was an increase of only 49 per cent of the tryptic value after activation with the enterokinase, as compared with the increase of 83 per cent found in the normal specimens Therefore, it appears that there is a decreased secretion of trypsinogen in these patients, although their values for tryptic activity by the usual tests fall within the normal range It is evident from these observations that there is a normal amount of enterokinase secreted by the duodenum. The average of the lipolytic activity in the half hour samples of the cases of pernicious anemia was slightly lower than the normal values The average amylolytic values were approximately equal to those found in the normal persons

The 22 cases of pernicious anemia were grouped in Table V and in Chart 2 according to their clinical and hematological status at the time of the analyses. Those patients having moderate to advanced central nervous system involvement usually had a much lower tryptic activity in the duodenal contents, not only when the tryptic values were compared with the normal findings, but even when these values were compared with those obtained in the patients with pernicious anemia having early or no

TABLE IV

The volume, color, pH, trypsin before and after activation with enterokinase, lipase, and amylase in the fasting gastric juice and in the duodenal contents following acid stimulation in 22 cases of permicious aremia

| Case num ber | Date | Specimen | Vol ume | Color | pH | Try p | Try p sin and try p- sin ogen | Lip ase | Amyl use |
|--------------------|-------------|--|-----------------|------------------------------|-------------------|---------------------|--|--------------------|--------------------|
| | 1032 | | cc | | | mgm per ec | mgm per cc | cc N/10 NaOH | mgm glu cose |
| 1 | July 6 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 45 17 | Green Yellow | | 12 4 | 16 4 | 10 | 0 9 0 7 |
| 2 | July 11 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 3 56 13 | Negative | 8 4 6 8 8 4 | | 1 7 4 6 11 0 | 0 2 0 2 1 1 | 08 03 09 |
| | October 12 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour | 13 52 | Bile Amber | 8 2 8 4 | 0 2 8 2 | 1 0 10 8 | 00 08 | 11 09 |
| 3 | July 15 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 40 56 53 | Negative | | 37 93 161 | 4 2 11 5 25 3 | 0 2 0 5 1 2 | 1 7 1 4 1 8 |
| 4 | July 22 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour | 13 36 | Negative Yellow | | 0 2 9 9 | 0 2 17 2 | 0 2 2 2 | 0 6 0 7 |
| 5 | July 27 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 18 150 63 | Negative Green Green | | 0 0 20 0 19 5 | 0 3 29 1 34 8 | 0 1 1 0 1 0 | 23 08 15 |
| 6 | August 11 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 45 79 50 | Yellow Yellow | | 2 0 17 2 | 2 6 24 6 30 8 | | 08 08 11 |
| 7 | August 30 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 3 120 58 | Negative Yellow Yellow | | 0 5 9 2 12 3 | 0 5 15 2 16 2 | 0 1 0 7 1 2 | 0 9 2 2 2 5 |
| 8 | September 1 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 24 75 8 | Negative Yellow Yellow | 8 7 7 6 7 6 | 0 0 29 7 24 8 | 0 0 35 2 38 2 | 0 0 3 1 3 2 | 13 09 30 |
| 9 | September 7 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 13 44 50 | Negative Brown Brown | 8 4 7 6 7 8 | 0 6 13 5 14 2 | 0 7 20 0 28 3 | 0 0 3 2 4 4 | 09 08 21 |
| 10 | September 9 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 88 10 | Amber Brown | | 15 2 16 3 | 26 6 21 2 | 17 | 2 5 3 0 |

TABLE IV-Continued

| === | F========= | , | , | | | | | | |
|--------------------|--------------|--|-----------------|-----------------------------|-------------------|----------------------|--|--------------------|--------------------|
| Case num ber | Date | Specimen | Vol ume | Color | Hq | Tryp 8in | Tryp- sin and tryp- sino- gen | Lip | Amyl ase |
| | 1932 | | ce | | | mgm per | mgm per | CC N/10 NaOH | mgm glu cose |
| 11 | September 13 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 16 110 45 | Bile Amber Yellow | 7 8 7 8 7 8 | 27 | 5 3 26 2 21 4 | 09 42 47 | 29 34 48 |
| 12 | September 14 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 10 95 25 | Negative Brown Brown | 78 | | 1 0 27 2 24 4 | 01 34 30 | 2 2 1 9 2 3 |
| 13 | September 16 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour | 2 32 | Yellow | 7 8 | 0 0 20 8 | 28 0 | 40 | 11 |
| 14 | September 19 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 41 63 50 | Negative Brown Yellow | 8 2 | 0 4 15 4 10 4 | 05 174 148 | 02 24 26 | 2 5 2 1 2 3 |
| 15 | September 20 | Pasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 32 30 19 | Negative Brown Yellow | 8 6 7 8 8 2 | | 1 0 26 0 22 5 | 00 34 30 | 23 08 18 |
| 16 | September 21 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 58 31 21 | Bile Yellow Blood | | 2 6 9 5 23 6 | 5 5 18 2 29 2 | 0 8 2 2 3 2 | 3 1 1 5 3 8 |
| 17 | September 26 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 14 80 46 | Bile Amber Amber | 78 76 82 | 12 8 38 2 20 0 | 12 2 34 8 25 0 | 06 30 17 | 5 2 2 9 3 7 |
| 18 | September 28 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 5 65 11 | Bile Amber Blood | 8 0 7 8 8 2 | 15 102 89 | 16 9 13 2 | 10 | 2 7 2 6 |
| 19 | September 29 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour | 9 65 | Negative Amber | 8 6 8 2 | 06 100 | 1 0 15 6 | 02 | 3 4 1 9 |
| 20 | October 3 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 29 129 46 | Negative Amber Amber | | 2 7 17 4 17 2 | 6 0 26 6 22 0 | 0 3 3 0 2 0 | 2 3 2 3 3 7 |
| 21 | October 5 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 3 82 50 | Amber Amber | 8 5 8 4 | 0 4 9 2 12 8 | 12 0 16 0 | 12 | 0 2 0 2 |
| 22 | October 17 | Fasting gastric 1st half hour 2d half hour | 22 6 | Amber Amber | | 12 8 13 8 | 16 9 20 4 | 1 8 2 6 | 09 |

TABLE V

Mean values with probable error of the mean of the trypsin, trypsin plus trypsinogen, lipase, and amylase of lalf lour samples in the various groups of patients with pernicious aremia and in normal subjects

| | | Num | | Mean | alues | _ |
|----|--|--------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| | | ber of cases | Tr3 psin | Tr3 psin and tr3 psinogen | Lipase | Amy lave |
| I | Normals Pernicious anemia | 5 | mgm per cc 15 4±0 67* | mgm per cc 27 2±1 62 | N/10 NaOH 3 2±0 12 | mgm glucose 1 5±0 14 |
| | 1 Cases having moderate to advanced central nervous system involve- ment 2 Cases having early or | 14 | 12 2±0 63 | 18 0±0 94 | 2 1±0 23 | 16±018 |
| , | no demonstrable central nervous system involve- ment 3 All cases having RBC below 30 million per | 8 | 20 1±1 18 | 27 8±1 08 | 24±017 | 2 2 ± 0 18 |
| | c mm 4 All cases having normal | 5 | 12 6±0 75 | 17 8±1 03 | 14±014 | 11±017 |
| | RBC 5 Cases having moderate | 17 | 15 7±0 95 | 21 8±1 13 | 24±019 | 20±016 |
| | to advanced central nervous system involve ment and RBC below 30 million per c mm 6 Cases having moderate to advanced central | 4 | 11 8±0 93 | 16 2±0 56 | 14±016 | 1 0±0 21 |
| | nervous system involve ment and a normal RBC 7 Cases having early cen- | 10 | 12 3±0 86 | 18 8±1 24 | 23±029 | 17±022 |
| | tral nervous system involvement and RBC below 30 million per c mm 8 Cases having early or no demonstrable central nervous system in- | 1 | 17 2 | 24 6 | | 10 |
| • | volvement and normal RBC 9 Cases able to maintain RBC at normal levels | 7 | 20 2±1 31 | 27 8±1 21 | 24±018 | 23±019 |
| 10 | on liver extract derived from 300 or less grams of liver Cases requiring more than the amount of | 6 | 15 4±1 61 | 21 8±2 04 | 2 1 ±0 31 | 16±016 |
| 1 | liver extract derived from 300 grams of liver 1 All cases | 9 22 | 14 6±1 05 15 1±0 79 | 22 4±1 52 21 6±0 95 | 2 4 ±0 28 2 2±0 16 | 2 2±0 23 1 8±0 14 |

^{*} Probable error of mean

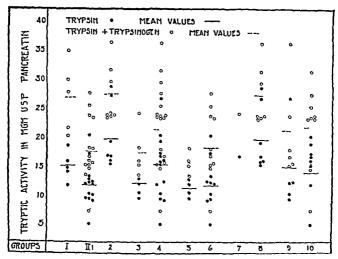


CHART 2 INDIVIDUAL VALUES OF TRYPSIN AND OF TRYPSIN AND TRYPSINGGEN
PLOTTED ACCORDING TO GROUPING IN TABLE V

demonstrable central nervous system involvement. This finding was more evident when the tryptic activity of the samples after activation with enterokinase was studied. The amylolytic and lipolytic activity of the duodenal contents of the patients having moderate to advanced central nervous system involvement was also slightly decreased, but not to such a degree as the tryptic activity. One patient (Case number 2) with marked central nervous system involvement had the lowest trypsin values in the series, and, repeating the test three months later, similar results were obtained. Of the four patients having moderate to advanced central nervous system involvement, who had normal amounts of tryptic activity in the duodenal contents three had recently shown definite improvement of symptoms referable to involvement of the central nervous system while receiving liver extract by injection

There were only five patients having red blood counts below 30 million per c mm, but in all there was a definite decrease in lipase and amylase and a slight decrease in trypsin. Fifteen of the patients had been studied by this department for a sufficient length of time to be used for determining the relationship of the duodenal contents with the main tenance dose of liver extract. The averages of the tryptic and lipolytic activity in those patients who were able to maintain the blood at normal levels by taking the amount of liver extract derived from

less of whole liver daily, were approximately equal to those found in the patients requiring more liver extract. The average of the amylolytic activity of the latter group was slightly higher than that of the former. The one patient who was able to maintain the blood at normal levels while taking very small amounts of liver extract, however, had the highest tryptic activity in the duodenal contents of any of the fifteen patients

DISCUSSION

In the 22 cases of pernicious anemia studied, there were no cases in which there was an absence of the pancreatic enzymes in the duodenal contents. This is in agreement with the findings of Crohn (7) (8), Chace and Myers (9), White (10), and McClure and associates (11), but is at variance with the findings of Cheney and Niemand (21). However, Cheney and Niemand based their opinion on the analyses of the fasting gastric contents. From our work it is evident that fasting gastric juice findings are not a satisfactory index of the external secretory function of the pancreas.

Although there were no cases in which there was a total absence of the pancreatic enzymes, it is interesting to note that, in all the patients with pernicious anemia having decreased amounts of tryptic enzymes, there was moderate to advanced central nervous system involvement present. We feel that this finding of low enzymatic activity in the duodenal contents of cases with achylia gastrica is of more significance than similar findings in cases having normal gastric function, because there was no free hydrochloric acid or pepsin to inhibit the pancreatic enzymes and, in addition, there was only a small amount of gastric juice in such cases to dilute the duodenal contents. The finding of decreased tryptic activity in the patients with pernicious anemia having moderate to advanced central nervous system involvement, suggests the possibility that a decrease in the external secretory function of the pancreas might be of etiological importance in the production of central nervous system involvement in pernicious anemia. A study of the duodenal contents of a larger series of cases is necessary to verify this possibility.

In this limited series, Case number 8 is the only one suggesting any

In this limited series, Case number 8 is the only one suggesting any correlation between maintenance dose of liver extract and the amount of pancreatic enzymes in the duodenal contents. This patient had one of the highest tryptic values in the whole series and was able to maintain the blood at normal levels for a period of $2\frac{1}{2}$ years while taking the amount of liver extract derived from 100 grams of whole liver every other day. This suggests that the maintenance dose of liver extract in some patients with pernicious anemia may be influenced by the degree of activity of the pancreas, however, the findings in the remaining patients show no such relationship. The probability still remains that in the majority of the patients receiving an adequate diet and having no complications, the

maintenance dose of liver extract is governed by the ability of the patient to absorb the active principle from the gastro intestinal tract, as suggested by Castle and his associates (26)

CONCLUSIONS

- 1 Twenty two cases of pernicious anemia were studied and all showed pancreatic enzymes in the duodenal contents
- 2 The determination of pancreatic enzymes in the fasting gastric contents is of no value in estimating pancreatic activity
- 3 The incubation of duodenal contents with enterokinase is necessary in order to determine the total amount of proteolytic enzymes secreted by the pancreas
- 4 The ability of the duodenal mucosa to secrete enterokinase is apparently not impaired in pernicious anemia
- 5 All patients with pernicious anemia who had decreased tryptic activity showed moderate to advanced central nervous system involvement
- 6 With the possible exception of one case, there was no correlation between maintenance dose of liver extract and the activity of the pan creatic enzymes

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HEAT CRAMPS A CLINICAL AND CHEMICAL STUDY

BY JOHN H TALBOTT AND JOST MICHELSEN

(From the Fatigue Laboratory, Morgan Hall Harvard University Boston and the Six Companies Hospital Boulder City Nevada)

(Received for publication December 15, 1932)

The regulation of the interchange of water and salt in the body is a delicate and very precise mechanism Haldane and Priestley (1) found no change in the percentage of hemoglobin in the blood after ingestion of large amounts of water plus salt Later Priestley (2) reported a diminu tion in the electrical conductivity of the serum following an increased water intake and an increase of conductivity after ingestion of salt solution Crawford (3), Adolph (4) and others confirm these findings Because of experimental difficulties fewer data are available concerning a restricted intake of these constituents in normal men The increased output of water and salt, however, especially in urine, sweat and vomitus, has been studied extensively Gamble and Ross (5) found a marked reduction in body weight in dogs after experimental pyloric obstruction This loss of weight and inability to assimilate ingesta from vomiting was essentially referable to a loss of water plus sodium and chloride ions Sweating is another mechanism by which salt and water are lost from the In a temperate climate this salt loss is small, even in heavy work, and is not responsible for a fall of the salt level of the blood serum (6) In a hot climate, however, sweating may reach a magnitude sufficient to alter various constituents of the blood during a work period of several hours duration (7) If this changed composition of blood reaches sufficient magnitude, then a break down of some function of the living organ ism may be expected

Clinically the failure of the human organism to cope with a high environmental temperature is generally associated with the conditions known as sun stroke, heat stroke and heat exhaustion. There is another malady less well known, but nevertheless definite in its characteristics, that is frequently seen in workers in extreme heat. This is known as heat cramps. In 1904 Edsall (8) described two cases of painful cramps admitted to the hospital and later (9) attributed them to exposure to intense heat. Miners and firemen frequently report off duty because of severe muscle cramps when working in high temperatures. This malady has been adequately described and satisfactorily named but the cause has not been clearly defined. This communication is a study of several cases of heat cramps with a simple hypothesis for their origin.

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Clinically the failure of the human organism to cope with a high environmental temperature is generally associated with the conditions known as sun stroke, heat stroke and heat exhaustion. There is another

During the summer of 1932 members of this laboratory were investigating the physiological and pathological effects of high temperature upon the living organism. Boulder City, Nevada, as the center of operations for the construction of Hoover Dam, offered unusual opportunities for this study. This city, only seven miles from the site of Hoover Dam, is situated in the Colorado River Basin Desert. There were approximately 2500 men working on the Dam who lived in Boulder City during the recent summer. Figure 1 gives the daily maximum temperatures in

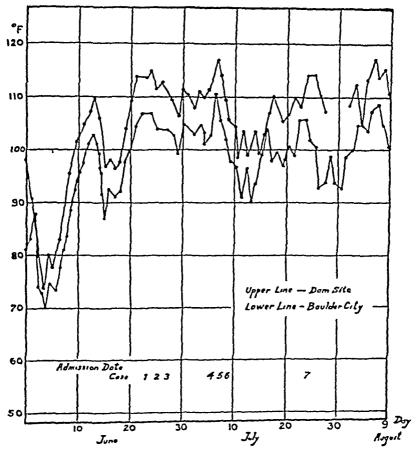


Fig 1 Maximum Daily Temperature Observations During the Summer of 1932

Boulder City and at the Dam site during this period. The admission dates for the cases discussed are noted on this figure. There were roughly four hot spells of 4 to 5 days each, and during these periods of heat all of

The employees of the Six Companies Construction Company were cared for at their own Hospital This is a modern 60-bed hospital, well equipped to care for medical and surgical cases, located in Boulder City. The authors vere given a "free hand" in the diagnosis, treatment and investigation of all suspected and verified cases suffering from the ill effects of heat.

the cases were admitted to the hospital All of the suspected heat cases were seen within 15 minutes after admission and within 45 minutes after leaving the Dam No known medication was given before they were seen by us Forty cc of venous blood was drawn shortly after we saw the patient, and following this a history was taken and physical examination was done Thus the significant observations were completed before hypodermic, subcutaneous or intravenous therapy was begun

The hospital cases admitted because of the ill effects of heat were few in number when a comparison is made with the preceding summer. While accurate statistics are not available concerning the mild and moderate cases suffering from heat, there are 17 cases in the insurance records in which death was attributed to heat from May to October, 1931. There were no deaths from heat in the summer of 1932, and according to sources considered to be reliable the number of mild and moderate heat cases was markedly below that for the summer of 1931. Greatly improved living quarters, milder temperature, abundance of cooled drinking water and acclimatization were probable factors in this reduction.

There are seven cases described in this paper. Five of these were suffering from heat cramps and two from heat exhaustion. All of the cases of heat cramps admitted to the hospital during our stay in Boulder City are included.

METHODS

The methods employed for the determination of all of the urinary constituents and the majority of the blood constituents are given in a previous paper (6) The chlorides of the serum and cells were determined according to Wilson and Ball (10) The micro method of Folin and Malmros (11) was used for blood sugar The total fixed base of the serum was determined after Van Slyke et al (12) The morphology of the blood was studied in the accepted clinical fashion

Heparin was added as an anticoagulant to the drawn blood. Blood for estimation of lactic acid sugar and formed elements was removed at once. The remainder, about 35 cc, was equilibrated at 37 5° in a water bath at the approximate value $Pco_2 = 40$ mm Hg. After 15 minutes equilibration, blood for measurements of oxygen capacity and CO_2 content was removed. The remaining whole blood was then centrifuged for three 20 minute periods. Calculation of cell volume at infinite time was then possible according to Hirota's method (13). The various serum determinations were performed on the separated plasma and the cell water and cell chloride on the separated cells.

RESULTS

In no instance was arterial blood secured and the equilibration of venous blood was carried out under tensions of carbon dioxide that varied somewhat in the series. Thus Table I of experimental observations is supplemented by Table II, which permits a ready and more exact comparison of the acid base equilibrium in the serium. The original data may be recalculated assuming a constant value for one of the several

TABLE 1
Experimental observations on oxygenated blood

| White blowd cells | | 15,150 13,100 | 9,250 | 9,300 | 9,250 | 6.050 | 7,900 | | 8,000 | 12,600 | | 4.800 | 10.500 | 2 | 6,700 |
|------------------------------|---|---------------------|--------------------|----------|---------|--------|--------|--------|---------|-----------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Red blood cells | mıf Iıons | 6 18 | | | 5 12 | 17.1 | 4 93 | | 5 20 | 4 27 | | 4 50 | 9 | 5 10 | 5 24 |
| (Sugar) | mgm per 100 cc of blood | 107 | 112 | 116 | 109 | 111 | 106 | | | 95 | | | 66 | 107 | 98 |
| (Lac tle acid)s | m Pg per liter of blood | 1.5 | 25 2 | <u> </u> | | 1 8 | | | | 1.5 | | | | 29 | |
| (Cal | m Eq per liter of serum | 52 | и С | 3 3 | | | | 52 | | | | | | 6.5 | |
| (Pro- tein), | grams per liter of serum | 938 | 72.8 | 8 8 8 | 67.2 | 709 | 756 | 75.2 | 763 | 0 10 | 724 | 67.8 | 69 5 | 83 2 | 73 1 |
| +(IIPO4), | m Eq per liter of serum | 2.7 | 26 | 4 | 7 | _ | 2 | 2.2 | | 2.5 | | | | 3.5 | |
| (Total fixed brse), | m Eq per lifer of serum | 144 5 146 5 | 145 5 | 7400 | 151 5 | 1509 | 1505 | | | 1483 | | | | 152 2 | |
| (11,0), | cells | | | | 7111 | 716 | 722 | 728 | | 738 | | 733 | 723 | 721 | 720 |
| °(C))° | m Eq per liter of celts | 47.7 | 52.0 | | 2 | 47 | 2 | 530 | | 54 1 | | જ | | 20 | |
| (CI), | m Eq per luter of serum | 92 0 99 6 | 999 | 1000 | 1078 | 99 2 | 99 0 | 101 6 | 102 0 | ₹ 96 ₹ | 100 | 1040 | 1050 | 948 | |
| Cell vof ume | per cent | 52 0 13 5 | 13 2 | 419 | 126 | 133 | 9 61 | 499 | | 454 | | | | | |
| Total (CO ₁₎ , | m Lq for liter of serum | 22 59 24 73 | 26 80 | 21 83 | 24 42 | 26 08 | 25 56 | 23 36 | | 18 61 | 19 04 | 21 73 | 29 11 | 23 08 | |
| Total (COs)s | m Eq first of blood | | 21 | 2 | 20 | 22 | 10 | 2 | | 16 20 | 16 80 | 19 96 | 19 89 | 18 72 | |
| Pco | mm II.8 | 36 8 39 1 | 42 7 | 368 | 35 7 | 32.5 | 159 | 359 | | 37 1 | 35 4 | 35 7 | 123 | 420 | |
| Oxygen capac- ity | m Eq Prr Prr of of blood | 10 73 8 96 | 8 7 8 | 8 30 | 8 10 | 8 30 | 911 | | | 831 | | - | ~ | 9 12 | _ |
| Date and time | <i>650 1</i> | 12 00 M 1 15 P M | స్ స | 200 | V 00 | 30 A | V 00 | V 00 | 200 | 88 | 80 | V 00 | 80 | 30 P | ر ا |
| Date | | June 21 June 25 | June 26 July 16 | June 25 | June 27 | July 6 | July 8 | July 9 | July 16 |) (ii) | July 10 | July 11 | July 11 | July 23 | July 21 |
| Care num ber | | | | 61 | 3 | | 'n | | • | ဇ | | | | ~ | |

variables $pH_s = 7.45$ has been arbitrarily selected in the construction of Table II This treatment has certain disadvantages, nevertheless its use is probably justified

TABLE II

Electrolyles of true plasma and rol at pH_s = 7 45

(Concentrations are expressed in m Eq. per liter of scrum excepting rol)

| Case number | Date | (HCO1)- | (Lac tate)- | (CI)- | +(H*bO*) | (Pro- teinate) | Σ Anions | Total base | *cı |
|----------------|---------|---------|----------------|-------|----------|-------------------|----------|---------------|-----|
| | 1939 | | | | 1 | | | | |
| 1 | June 24 | 21 12 | 15 | 92 7 | 2 69 | 23 1 | 141 1 | 146 1 | 65 |
| | June 26 | 25 10 | 15 | 100 5 | 2 58 | 17 9 | 1476 | 1463 | |
| | July 16 | 22 98 | 15 | 109 4 | 2 18 | 17 3 | 153 3 | 1488 | 62 |
| 3 | June 27 | 23 13 | 11 | 108 2 | 244 | 165 | 1514 | 151 8 | 62 |
| 4 | July 6 | 25 27 | 18 | 98 7 | 1 72 | 17 5 | 1450 | 150 6 | 62 |
| 5 | July 8 | 23 52 | 15 | 990 | 2 39 | 18 6 | 1450 | 151 5 | 66 |
| | July 9 | 21 52 | 15 | 102 3 | 2 17 | 18 8 | 1463 | | 65 |
| 6 | July 9 | 16 52 | 1 5 | 98 4 | 2 55 | 15 8 | 134 8 | 149 6 | 66 |
| | July 11 | 22 70 | 17 | 105 6 | 161 | 167 | 1483 | 148 1 | 71 |
| | July 14 | 21 38 | 15 | 1065 | 2 18 | 17 1 | 148 7 | 148 5 | 68 |
| 7 | July 23 | 21 18 | 29 | 961 | 3 55 | 20 5 | 144 3 | 153 2 | 65 |

It is possible to calculate very accurately the total carbon dioxide of whole blood at pH. = 7 45 with knowledge of the oxygen capacity and the partial pressure of CO₂ during equilibration (14). The spread between total CO₂ of whole blood and true plasma was assumed to be the same for a given specimen of blood at the observed pH. and at pH. = 7 45. Total CO₂ of true plasma at pH. = 7 45 was calculated on this basis

Values for pH are derived from the equation

$$pH_a = pK_a + \log (BHCO_3)_a - \log (H_2CO_3)_a,$$

 $pK_{\bullet} = 610,$

m Eq
$$(H_2CO_3)_* = 0.031 (H_2O)_* Pco$$
,

and

where

$$(BHCO_3)_a = (total CO_2)_a - (H CO_3)_a$$

Base bound by protein is calculated according to Van Slyke, Hastings, Hiller and Sendroy (15)

m Eq (BP) =
$$0.104$$
 (P) (pH = -5.08),

where

(P), = grams of protein per liter of serum

$$pH_{\bullet} = 7.45$$

Values for serum volume and serum and cell chloride were corrected to pH. = 7 45 by reference to unpublished observations on dog s blood

The following formulae were employed

$$V_{e cor} = V_{e obs} + 40(pH_{e obs} - 745),$$
 $Cl_{e cor} = Cl_{e obs} - 133(pH_{e obs} - 745),$
 $Cl_{e cor} = Cl_{e obs} + 200(pH_{e obs} - 745)$

The shift in serum volume and chloride for dog's blood within the physiological range is probably close enough to that of man to introduce no significant error in its use. Lactate of serum is calculated from its concentration in whole blood, assuming the concentration in cells and serum to be equal.

The expression \sum anions represents the corrected sum of the anions. which, if all amons were accounted for, should be approximately equal to the corresponding value for total base Inspection of these values shows a striking difference between the blood on admission and after recovery A marked discrepancy between total anions and cations is found only in the admission blood Values for (HCO₃)-, except in Case 6, are only slightly below an average normal of 24 m Eq. The lactate and inorganic phosphate of the serum are only slightly elevated, except in Case 7, where both values are about twice the normal ones. The proteinate ions are considerably increased because of a concentration of the blood proteins related to the degree of dehydration. Shifts of these four electrolytes of this magnitude and direction are frequently seen in a physiological state no more abnormal than that accompanying moderate exercise is our impression that the distribution of the chloride ion is regulated by a mechanism more resistant to change, and that an elevation or depletion of the blood chloride is seen only in disease. Thus the low values for chlorides seem to us most significant of all

In all cases the blood taken on the second day of hospitalization after treatment had begun shows chloride values only slightly below normal. This significant rise in serum chloride coincided clinically with relief from cramps. Cases 2 and 3, who did not complain of cramps, had normal chloride values. The total base of the serum was low on admission and in Cases 1 and 6 did not reach the normal value of 152 m. Eq. during recovery.

The concentration of red blood corpuscles corresponds closely to the oxygen capacity and cell volume. Calculation of the cell hemoglobin gives an average value of 196 m. Eq. per liter of cells. This is slightly below the value of 203 given by Dill (16) for 7 normal subjects. There was some tendency for the white cells of the blood to be elevated with only slight increases in the polymorphonuclear percentage. All of the patients with elevated white counts had normal rectal temperatures.

Table III contains data concerning water balance The fluid intake, high as it may seem, is probably considerably below the average daily intake for workmen during the hot periods. The values for salt intake

TABLE III Daily observations on fluid intake and output

| | | Inorganic phosphate | 1 | 1 06 | • | ē. | 4 | | . 0 | | 2 | . == | | • | | | | | | | 0 | | · ∝ |) - | | |
|--|----------------------|-------------------------|-------|----------|---------|---------|---------|-----------|---------|---------|--------|--------|---------|----------|----------|----------|----------|--------|---------|---------|----------|---------|-----------|----------------|----------|---------|
| | | Inorg | 2 | _ | | - | 2 | 1.4 | 0 | - | _ | 0 93 | - | : | _ | _ | | | | _ | 17 | 0.7 | 0 48 | - | 1 | |
| | nts | Creatinine | erams | 0 94 | | 000 | 1 42 | 1 10 | 0 65 | 1 07 | 0 04 | 0 63 | 1 08 | } | | | | | | | 000 | 0.57 | 0 47 | 200 | | |
| | Urinary constituents | Creatin | grams | 0 93 | | 000 | 1 16 | 0 79 | 0 40 | 0 89 | 0.76 | 0.51 | 0 70 | : | | | | | | | 000 | 0.34 | 0 07 | 0 56 | 3 | |
| | Urfnary | Total nitrogen | grams | 14 45 | 24 75 | 22 82 | 14 16 | 15 65 | 7 89 | 10 72 | 8 48 | 6 47 | 10 00 | | | 3 59 | 98 9 | 10 16 | 7 80 | 14 30 | 24 51 | 23 50 | 11 17 | 10 77 | : | |
| | | Sodium chloride | grams | 0 10 | 3 92 | 7 34 | 4 48 | 12 90 | 14 59 | 20 00 | 10 12 | 929 | 7 09 | 8 42 | 21 10 | 2 19 | 5 33 | 2 59 | 3 25 | 15 86 | 4 80 | 8 53 | 11 48 | 0 84 | 3 07 | 3 90 |
| กสามก อนา | | Specific | | 1022 | 1007 | 1010 | 1024 | 1028 | 1018 | 1023 | 1027 | 1031 | 1028 | 1026 | | 1008 | 1004 | 1012 | 1013 | 1018 | 1003 | 1011 | 1008 | 1024 | 1021 | 1024 |
| thinke | | Urine | 3 | 825 | 3210 | 1800 | 1000 | 1190 | 882 | 1290 | 820 | 570 | 875 | 720 | 2530 | 740 | 1740 | 170 | 775 | 1980 | 3400 | 2030 | 1700 | 1295 | 210 | 575 |
| derey voser various on Junta intake and output | Sodium | intake (approximate) | Erams | 31 | 15 | 8 | | | | | | | | | 32 | 17 | 17 | 80 | | | 23 | 6 | | | 13 | |
| y ouser | Total | intake | ય | 0009 | 5150 | 2400 | 2100 | 0099 | 4400 | 3400 | 3900 | 7200 | 4800 | | 6500 | 4100 | 2200 | 4500 | _ | - | 7500 | 4400 | 3200 | 0099 | 3000 | |
| | Fluid | parenterally | 7,7 | 3000 | | | | | | | | | | 1000 | 3000 | 1000 | 1000 | _ | | | 1000 | | | | 1000 | |
| | | | ខ | 1300 | 3700 | 2000 | 1500 | 3 3 | 2 S | 000 | 00° | 400 | 1100 | - | 1500 | 2000 | 7000 | 2000 | - | 1200 | 2000 | 0077 | 72000 | 20047 | 1000 | |
| | | Comment | | 18 hours | | : | Home | | | At work | | | ; | 24 hours | 18 hours | 24 hours | 30 hours | | ноше | 100 | 20 nours | | Sort diet | AL WOTh | 12 hours | TIONE |
| | į | Tale Care | 1932 | June 24 | June 25 | June 26 | June 27 | 1 June 28 | June 29 | June 30 | July 1 | July 2 | or dint | June 25 | June 27 | July o | July 8 | July 9 | July 10 | July 10 | July | July 10 | July 11 | July 14 | July 23 | July 22 |
| | Case | number | | _ | | | | | | | | | • | 7 (| ٠. | 41 | o | | | v | • | | | ı | • | |

are only approximate but show in a striking degree the retention of salt ² by the body early in recovery. This was most marked in Case 1 where the intake of 45 grams of salt in 42 hours was accompanied by a urinary excretion of only 4 grams. Only a small amount of the salt not accounted for was lost in the stools and by sweating, the remainder was retained by the body. Values for total nitrogen in the urine are high for the first two days of observation. In an unpublished study of the healthy workmen at the Dam no such increase was found in any of the 24-hour urine specimens. It seems unlikely that the high nitrogen excretion can be attributed to exercise, to the high environmental temperature or to elevated body temperature. Increased destruction of muscle protein accompanying the cramps may be the source of some of the additional nitrogen. The utilization of tissue protein for fuel is probably responsible for most of the increase.

CLINICAL DISCUSSION

The characteristics that distinguish heat cramps from other varieties of cramps are few. The past history may reveal a previous attack of cramps while working in a high temperature. J. C. (Case 7) was the only patient in our series that admitted having had heat cramps previously. Individual variation in susceptibility is undoubtedly important. This response is intimately related to the phenomenon of acclimatization to the heat. Adequate proof of acclimatization is not at present available but certain considerations strongly suggest this. Acclimatization seems to be complete after the 3rd to 5th day. It is our belief that any given individual is more resistant to cramps after this 5-day period, other factors being equal. Moss (17) noted that colliers acclimatized to a high temperature lost twice as much sweat under the same conditions as unacclimatized subjects. Our observations (7) do not agree with these findings.

There may be a prodromal period of 1 to 3 days before the onset of acute symptoms. During this time the salt intake may be exceeded by the salt excretion. An alcoholic bout with diminished intake of food and salt may be followed by sufficient gastric irritation and vomiting to lower appreciably the salt level of the body. In Case 1 the 3-day prodromal period was preceded by an alcoholic bout, the severity and importance of which could not be ascertained. Vomiting with loss of electrolytes preceded the muscle cramps in Cases 1, 5 and 6, and nausea was a symptom in Case 7 as well. Diarrhea may be a symptom but was not noted in

In most instances the use of the v ord salt implies sodium chloride, as based on chloride determinations

This process is similar to that observed by Morawitz in cases of non-nephritic uremia with hypochloremia Morawitz, P, and Schloss, M, Klin Wehnschr, 1932, vi, 1628 'Extrarenale' Albuminume und Uramie

any of our cases of cramps There was a prevailing impression that profuse and explosive diarrhea was an accompaniment of most of the severe heat cases in the summer of 1931 No figures are available showing the incidence of diarrhea in uncomplicated heat cramps and in other ill effects of heat. It is interesting to note that cases of cholera as described in the literature have muscle cramps associated with prolonged diarrhea. As in heat cramps the vomiting and diarrhea may seriously deplete the salt in the body.

The presenting symptom is generally pain in various groups of muscles which prevents the subject from continuing work. Tingling in the fingers and toes may precede or accompany the cramps. Edsall (9) observed extreme irritability and fibrillary twitchings of the involved muscles in his patients with heat cramps. Deep or superficial palpation produced pain. In contrast in none of our cases were there fibrillary twitchings nor did palpation produce pain. However, active motion of the affected muscles was painful in our most severe cases.

The predilection of certain groups of smooth and striated muscles for cramps is worth noting. The muscles of the calf and the flexors of the forearms were the commonest sites The muscles of the abdominal wall were also affected in some instances quite apart from the smooth muscle of the gut It is our belief that the vomiting and diarrhea may be referable to irritation of the smooth muscle by a process similar to that causing cramps in striated muscle The effect of diminished blood chlo ride upon the heart muscle is an interesting problem for speculation Dr D B Dill suggested to us that the symptoms of Case 4 might be referred to such salt depletion This patient came into the hospital with symptoms in some respects resembling those of coronary occlusion His past cardiac history was not important The physical examination was negative His serum chlorides were below normal and he responded in a typical fashion to intravenous saline The retention of salt during the following 24 hours is further proof of the lowered salt level of his body The hospital does not have an electrocardiograph and no record was taken

The relation of heat cramps to heat exhaustion or heat stroke has not been clearly defined. In common with heat stroke or exhaustion is the exposure to a high temperature and the resultant loss of large volumes of sweat. Haldane (18) found a maximum loss of 5½ pounds per hour in seasoned colliers at work, and a much smaller loss of sweat in unacclimatized workers. That the amount of sweating is a function of external temperature rather than duration of exposure was substantiated by experiments of Hunt (19). In a Turkish bath he found that the sweat loss was about 2 pounds per hour when the temperature was between 60° and 80° C. Sweating was as free at the end of 3 hours as it was early in the experiment. This agrees with observations on ourselves during

the summer The comparison of heat stroke with cramps and with prostration reveals less similarity beyond this point Clinical evidence against a common causal agent in heat stroke and heat cramps is afforded by the observation made by Willox (20) He noted that the convulsions in heat stroke were made worse after intravenous saline injections opposite effect might be expected if the essential pathological process were a depletion of salt and water in the central nervous system Cramp cases show only a slight elevation of body temperature None of the cases in our series had a temperature above 101° F after admission to the hospital It is conceivable, but unlikely, that the temperature was higher before admission In 37 cases reported by Gauss (21) temperatures were subnormal in most of the subjects and were not elevated in any Cases of heat exhaustion similarly have only a slightly elevated temperature In contrast the heat stroke or heat hyperpyrexia patients run a fever frequently as high as 110° F with a correspondingly high pulse rate (Willcox, 20) The heart rate was as intimately related to body temperature, other factors being equal, in these cases as it had previously been found to be in hot-room experiments (22) In none of our cramp cases was the pulse over 90 Restlessness and delirium were noted in one case only, Case 4, and he regained his mental equilibrium soon after admission to the hospital In view of the number of cases diagnosed as sun stroke in the cities during the summer months, it is worth noting the absence of cases at Boulder City during the summer of 1932 Many of the men at work scaling the cliffs were exposed to the sun's rays for several hours each day The shade temperature was frequently 45° and the temperature of the rocks was 55° to 60° C Each day between the hours of 10 and 12 in the morning one of us (J H T) regularly played three hard sets of tennis in the direct sun without any head covering question of whether a healthy individual, accustomed to the heat for a few days, could succumb to sun stroke is an important one and not fully answered by the cases in the literature to date

An important criterion in substantiating a diagnosis of heat cramps is the marked relief following parenteral injection of large amounts of normal salt solution—All of our cases in this series were free from symptoms within six hours after starting treatment

In summary, then, a diagnosis of heat cramps may be made with the following conditions satisfied (1) Exposure to a high temperature at work (2) Rapid loss of salt in the sweat, that is not replaced (3) Painful muscle cramps (4) Diminished concentration of chloride and base in the blood and likewise in the body tissues (5) Rapid amelioration of symptoms after therapy

PATHOGENESIS

The pathogenesis of heat cramps has been variously assigned according to the period in which the several theories were advanced. In 1904

Edsall (8) proposed, as the pathological process, acute degeneration in the muscle. Some time later an infectious agent was considered but this was never sufficiently proved. In recent years interest in this subject has been transferred to pathological physiology. In 1923 Haldane in his discussion of a paper by Moss (23) stated that he believed miners' cramps could be attributed to water poisoning. Haldane further says, "When a man is working his blood is shunted away from the kidneys and excretion of urine stops. If the kidneys were working normally they would excrete the excess of water and save the man from cramps." In consideration of our quantitative observations it is desirable to define water poisoning and to qualify the assertions concerning the excretion of urine.

The body tissues of patients with heat cramps contain hypotonic fluid as seen from Table II, but this is not from the excess of water, rather it is from the depletion of total base and chlorides. Likewise after the beginning of treatment, if salt and water are retained to make up the deficit, a gain in weight during recovery would be expected If the fundamental process at fault were an increase of total body water, then the patients after the beginning of treatment would lose weight because of the diuretic action of salt and water. The facts observed in our cases that were weighed on admission and at discharge are as follows gained 3.0 pounds in the first 24 hours and Case 6 gained 7.0 pounds in 48 hours In regard to kidney function it is our belief that the principal reason for low kidney excretion during working hours in a hot climate is peripheral dilatation of the capillaries for dissipation of heat, rather than a primary shut down of the kidneys Heller and Smirk (24) studying rabbits and rats demonstrated a water diuresis (diuresis following an elevated fluid intake) in the presence of depleted water reserves There is no evidence that under the above conditions for man the kidneys are not capable of excreting any excess of water that may be taken in

Haldane (23) predicted a lowering of the blood chlorides of 3 to 4 per cent as a possible accompaniment of heat cramps. In this series the mildest case showed a 2 per cent reduction in serum chlorides and the severest case a 10 per cent reduction below the accepted normal minimal value. Direct evidence is not at hand showing that the drop in the chloride level of the blood is followed by a similar depletion of the chloride in the intercellular spaces. It is generally assumed that the concentration of electrolytes in the serum and intercellular spaces is approximately equal. If these are the facts then a loss of water and salt from the blood is followed by a partial replacement from the tissues. In the condition under discussion there is a loss of salt and water from the body with a concomitant replacement of water only. If this major process is continued, irrespective of the secondary processes, there will eventually be a lowering of the chloride level below the normal range. It is our belief that when a critical level for the chlorides is reached in working individuals

muscle cramps will occur It seems likely that the critical chloride level is a function of individual susceptibility, acclimatization and the length of the prodromal period

TREATMENT AND PREVENTION

If the cause of heat cramps is essentially a loss of salt and water from the body tissues then treatment should provide for restoration. The most rapid replacement of salt and water is by means of intravenous saline solution. In our study only sodium chloride was used. A larger number of cases would have enabled us to use other salts in treatment. A control study with glucose infusions without salt would likewise have been desirable. In addition to the saline infusions an exclusive milk diet was given during the first 24 hours. This simple regime was highly satisfactory in all of the cases.

It is possible to prevent cramps by providing a daily supply of salt greater than that lost in the sweat. This amount may be determined by knowing the approximate amount of chloride excreted in a 24-hour urine specimen. In our experience less than 3 grams of salt per day in the urine does not provide for a satisfactory margin of safety. A high salt diet may be provided in a number of ways. Fresh cow's milk has an average salt concentration of about 0.3 per cent and this provides fluid as well as salt. The workers of South Metropolitan Gas Co., Great Britain (25), are given a saline drink of 0.012 per cent KCl and 0.018 per cent NaCl. The number of heat cramp cases has been reduced since this regulation became effective. Salted drinking water (sodium chloride 0.25 to 1.0 per cent) has been used successfully in prevention of heat cramps among soldiers in the U.S. Army (26). Barley water and salted beer are used by certain local groups of colliers in England. It is possible that no salt need be taken between meals if the food is liberally salted at meal times. The necessary amount of salt to prevent cramps is a function of the individual's susceptibility and of the amount lost in the sweat at a given temperature.

The authors are deeply indebted to Dr Wales Haas, Surgeon-in-Chief of the Six Companies Hospital, whose interest and cooperation made this work possible

SUMMARY

This paper is a clinical description of five cases of heat cramps with a chemical study of the blood and urine. The hypothesis is advanced that the etiologic factor is a loss of base, chlorides and water from the body principally by way of the sweat glands without adequate replacement of the same. It is obvious that heat cramps is essentially an occupational disease and an industrial hazard is created by the association of hard work, high external temperatures and profuse sweating

PROTOCOLS

Case 1

Mr J F, a married white man of 42, entered the hospital on June 24, 1932, complaining of vomiting for 3 days and generalized muscle cramps for 12 hours

Past Instory Born in Nova Scotia, he has lived for the past 28 years in southwestern United States He has never been in the tropics, has never noted any ill effects of heat, and prefers summer to winter He perspires freely in a warm or hot environment and his skin tans easily He came to Boulder City June 6, 1931, and has worked since that time in the Machine Shop situated on the edge of the city He drank at least two quarts of milk daily during the first four months of his employment in the summer of 1931. In the fall his family moved to Las Vegas and he had virtually no milk after that time He is a light meat eater, preferring fruits and vegetables and not especially addicted to the use of salt.

Present illness Three days ago he began to vomit and, while the vomiting has diminished in severity, only a small amount of food and fluid has been tolerated during this period. Twelve hours ago cramps in the muscles of his legs first appeared and since then they have caused pain in his arms, hands, and abdominal wall. Change of position will generally bring on cramps in the parts moved, although deep pressure or palpation is not painful. He voided small amounts of urine twice during the twenty four hours before admission. He has continued to perspire freely in spite of the low fluid intake.

Physical examination Temperature, 99 6° F pulse, 88, respiration, 16 blood pressure, 130/84 The examination was essentially negative The eye grounds were normal Chvostek's and Trousseau's signs were negative No

fibrillary twitchings were seen

Diagnosis Heat cramps

Treatment He was given, during the first 24 hours, two hypodermoclyses of 1500 cc of normal saline and was allowed to drink 3000 cc of milk He received no other food or fluids

Course The cramps ceased after 6 hours He was sent home on the 3d day on a diet containing a minimum of one quart of milk daily. He resumed work the third day after discharge Frequent follow ups revealed no muscle soreness or cramps during the next two periods of hot weather

Case 2

Mr W E T, a single white male of 39, entered the hospital June 25, 1932 complaining of right sided headache and weakness in the legs of a few minutes duration ${\rm constant}$

Past history He had served in the Navy during the World War and during the past year had several radical operations on his sinuses in the Veterans Hospital in Los Angeles He had been discharged from the hospital only one month when he was given a job on Hoover Dam He had never lived or worked in a hot climate previously and had worked only two hours the first day of employment when he stopped because of the above complaints His daily intake of milk was over one quart

Present illness He had been working only two hours when he was forced to stop because of a severe right sided headache and a weakness of his legs He

did not have any muscle cramps

Physical examination Temperature, 98 4° F pulse, 88 The scars from the previous sinus operations were the only findings of note The reflexes were not altered

Diegrosis Mild heat prostration

Treatment He was given, during the 24 hours in the hospital, one hypodermocks is of 1000 cc and was allowed to drink milk ad libitum

Course He had no complaints after going to bed. His course through the summer was not followed as he did not return to work

Case 3

Mr H P, a single white man of 42, entered the hospital June 27, 1932, complaining of vomiting and weakness for 12 hours

Past history He had lived from 1908 to 1910 in the Philippine Islands as a soldier in the United States Army He had muscle cramps many times when working in the heat. The cramps were transitory and persisted no more than a few minutes with no therapy other than that of stopping work. He did not have any symptoms of heat stroke or heat exhaustion. From 1922 to 1928 he worked in a steel rolling mill in the United States and would have mild cramps at frequent intervals. He came to Boulder City in March, 1932, and has had mild muscle cramps three times since. These were in the calves of the legs or insteps of the feet. He has had no cramps for 3 weeks. His diet includes two glasses of milk daily. A warm climate is preferred to a cold one, his skin burns or tans depending upon the gradation of exposure to the sun and he perspires freely.

Present illi ess The patient was aware of the relatively high atmospheric temperature on the day preceding admission. He perspired freely and was aware of an increased water intake at work on this day. During the night he vomited several times and felt weak. He did not have muscle cramps

Physical examination Temperature, 98° \(\Gamma\), pulse, 88 Slight tenderness in the epigastrium was the most important physical finding

Diagnosis Mild heat prostration

Treatment He was given, during the first 24 hours, two intravenous infusions of 1000 cc of normal saline and was allowed a diet exclusively of milk

Course He did not vomit after admission to the hospital and was discharged the following day A follow-up report 6 weeks later showed no symptoms since leaving the hospital

Case 4

Mr W R, a divorced white man of 42, entered the hospital on July 6, 1932, complaining of gas on the stomach and precordial pain radiating to the interscapular region

Past I istory Born in Kentucky, he has lived in the west for the past 10 years. For 22 years he has been employed as a miner at frequent intervals. In 1919 and 1920 he worked in the Texas oilfields in very hot weather without any ill effects directly attributed to the heat. Fifteen years ago he had a dizzy spell accompanied by slight cardiac pain. This was very mild and he has had no cardiac complaints at any time since. He came to Boulder City in March, 1932, and since that time has worked in the tunnels.

Present illness The past weel-end he went on a mild alcoholic bout and returned to work the day of admission. Soon after starting work he had gas on his stomach followed by a short period of delinium. On partially recovering from the delinium he complained of mild precordial pain radiating to the interscapular region and fear of impending death. When he was brought to the hospital he was mildly delinous.

Pr secal examination Temperature 99 8° F., pulse, 98 respiration, 24

blood pressure 132/84 There was mild dyspnea, precordial hyperesthesia, and the heart sounds were weak but no murmur or rub was heard

Diagnosis Heat cramps of myocardium?

He was given, during the first 24 hours an intravenous infusion Treatment of 1000 cc of normal saline in 5 per cent glucose and was allowed to drink 2000 cc of milk He received no other food or fluids

Course The patient was discharged after 24 hours and left Boulder City There is no follow up report available

Case 5

Mr R F, a single white man of 33, entered the hospital on July 8, 1932, complaining of severe pain in the calves of his legs for 2 hours

Past history Born in Tennessee he has lived the past 31/2 years in the He has never complained of any ill effects of heat and prefers sum mer to winter He drinks a great deal of water and perspires freely in the heat Since coming to Boulder City 4 months ago he has worked in the tunnels He drank 2 to 3 pints of milk daily until 2 weeks ago, at which time he stopped because of dislike for it. In recent years he has not added salt to his food at the table

Present illness Ten days ago he had a mild gastric upset from which he believes he has not fully recovered. He drank a small amount of beer over the holiday week end. The night before admission he had slight tingling in the fingers and cramps in the leg muscles About one hour after starting work on his second shift since the holidays, he became dizzy and vomited. The day was very warm and the profuse sweating was followed by consumption of large amounts of water The patient complained of such severe pains in the legs that the ambulance attendant reported the case as traumatic

Physical examination Temperature 101 0° F pulse, 88 blood pressure, A palpable spleen was the only abnormal finding The reflexes were normal and no tenderness or fibrillary twitchings of the muscles were elicited

Mild heat cramps Diagnosis

A high milk diet was the only order Treatment

Course There was no recurrence of cramps and he was discharged after 3 days He worked for 2 weeks without any symptoms, but decided he needed a rest so he went to his home in Tennessee for the remainder of the summer

Case 6

Mr G D, a married white male of 38, entered the hospital on July 9, 1932, complaining of muscle cramps and vomiting for 3 hours

Past history Born in California he has spent a long part of his life in a warm country From 1920 to 1925 he was in Panama, while in recent years he has been working in Imperial and Death Valleys California, without any ill effects of the heat He came to Boulder City only 3 days ago and has worked outside on the Arizona Spillway for 2 days

Present illness The day before admission he felt badly at work but a headache was the only specific complaint. He was slightly constipated and took a laxative with a good result some hours after He obtained a good rest on the night before admission but felt badly on going to work Muscle cramps in the arms legs and abdomen forced him to stop work and after vomiting 3 times he was sent to the hospital. On admission he complained of severe headache in addition to the cramps

Physical examination Temperature, 99 8° F pulse, 83 blood pressure

118/68 The physical examination was negative

Diagrosis Severe heat cramps

Treatment He was given an intravenous infusion of 1000 cc of normal

saline in 5 per cent glucose and was allowed a high milk diet

Course He had no complaints after 6 hours and next morning felt well enough to go back to worl He was discharged on the third day and returned to work the fourth day after admission For 10 days he was symptom-free on a high salt and high milk diet. On the tenth day he fell while scaling a cliff, injuring his lumbar spine, and he did not return to work the remainder of the summer

Case 7

Mr J C, a single white male of 38, entered the hospital on July 23, 1932, complaining of cramps for 5 hours

Past Listory He was born in California and has lived for many years in a warm climate From 1912 to 1914 he was stationed as a soldier in the Philippines and the only sickness there was dysentery In 1929 he had mild muscle cramps while working in a hot climate There was no recurrence He came to Boulder City the day before admission and had only worked the first shift In the heat he perspires very freely and has a large water intake

Present illness Three hours after commencing work he began to have muscle cramps, first in the left hand, spreading to the legs and abdominal muscles He noted slight nausea but no vomiting or diarrhea There was a

slight frontal headache His water intake was large in amount

Plusical examination Temperature, 98 6° F, pulse, 84, blood pressure, 122/84 There was no muscle tenderness and no twitchings were seen biceps reflex was bilaterally increased. The other reflexes were present and responded normally

Diagnosis Severe heat cramps

Treatment He was given, shortly after admission, an intravenous infusion of 1000 cc of normal saline in 5 per cent glucose His diet during the hospital stay was milk alone

Course The cramps ceased after 4 hours, and he was discharged the next morning Two weeks after return to work he continued to be free of cramps

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 Fatigue in Soldiers Due to Chloride Losses
 Use of Sodium Chloride in Drinking Water

 Replacement through the

STUDIES OF GASTRIC PEPSIN I METHODS OF MEASUREMENT AND FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCE IT

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(Received for publication December 23 1932)

The study of gastric pepsin has failed to receive adequate consideration for several reasons, but mainly because of the lack of technic for obtaining reliable measurements. We investigated the method originally proposed by Gates (1) and more fully elaborated by Gilman and Cowgill (2), and found it to be accurate and highly satisfactory. In fact, it is more accurate than is needed in clinical practice. We have used this method, with slight modifications, in the investigations reported in this and the following paper. The details of the technic can be obtained from the original article by Gilman and Cowgill (2). In this method one measures the rate of digestion of gelatin from an exposed and developed photographic film. As digestion proceeds, the silver granules in the gelatin are liberated, and the resulting decrease in opacity of the film is taken as a measure of the digestion which has occurred

TECHNIC

We use, for the digestion, a cell 11 mm in diameter and 12 mm in depth turned out of sheet bakelite on a lathe. Its capacity is approximately 0.5 cc. The solution to be tested, diluted with an equal volume of glycine hydrochloric acid buffer of pH 2, is placed in the cell. A small square of the prepared film is then laid over the top of the cell and this is covered by a glass square. The whole is clamped together by means of a spring clothes pin and placed in a water bath the temperature of which is maintained at 25° C. After fifteen minutes the film is removed, washed, and dried, and the change in opacity is determined with a color imeter. The standard for comparison is a freshly prepared suspension of colloidal silver. The index of peptic digestion is obtained by the use of a nomogram as described by Gilman and Cowgill (2)

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The Unit of Measurement

We have not found it necessary to conduct the determinations in triplicate because of the close agreement of duplicate determinations. Softening of the film due simply to moistening with the solution causes an error of approximately 70 units which must be subtracted from each determination. Since films prepared at different times may differ slightly in this respect, it is well to determine the correction for each lot of film prepared.

The unit of pepsin arbitrarily established by Gilman and Cowgill represents the proteolytic activity of a 1 1,000,000,000 solution of a theoretically pure pepsin. They arrived at this unit by assuming that a 1 per cent solution of Armour's 1 10,000 pepsin powder contains 1,000 units.

Because of possible variations in the strength of different lots of the commercial pepsin used it is well always to standardize each new lot against the one previously employed. It has been our experience that a solution of commercial pepsin is not sufficiently stable to be used from day to day. The standard must therefore be prepared each time determinations are to be made. The pepsin in the gastric contents of man and dogs is much more stable, and retains its strength for at least a week if kept at ice box temperature.

Before taking up a systematic study of gastric pepsin in various diseases it was necessary first to determine the best conditions for obtaining the juice for analysis. First we studied the residuum aspirated in the morning, before taking food or drink, but we found the concentration of pepsin in such juice so variable that single determinations had little value Actually in specimens from twenty-four normal, fasting persons it varied from 5 to 1,930 units, with an average of 388 units. This extreme variability is doubtless due to the variation in the size of the fractions of swallowed saliva, regurgitated duodenal secretion, and gastric juice which make up the material obtained. In subsequent work we used gastric contents removed one hour after the taking of eight arrowroot cookies and 400 cc of water We examined, in this way, juice from eighty-five persons whom we believed to be normal masmuch as they had no complaint referable to the upper part of the digestive tract, or disease which might affect gastric secretion. Considerable variation existed in the content of pepsin, the value ranging from 0 to 580 units The modal or most typical value was about 100 units. The arithmetic mean was distinctly higher than this, due to a few high readings For the entire group the mean was 145 units, with a standard deviation of 125 units From Figure 1 it can be seen that the men had slightly higher values than the women This is in accord with the higher acidity in males which has previously been demonstrated (3) Although the variability in the readings obtained after an Ewald type of meal is high, it is considerably less than that found with juice of fasting subjects

An effort was made to determine the range of variation in repeated estimations in the case of one individual. Eight determinations made on successive days in a case of pseudo ulcer associated with high pepsin readings ranged from 610 to 1,930 units, giving a mean value of 1,175 and a standard deviation of 480 units. In this case seventeen estimations of pepsin in the fasting juice ranged from 410 to 2,530 units, giving a

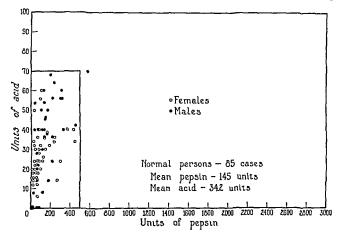


FIG 1 DISTRIBUTION OF CONCENTRATIONS OF ACID AND PEPSIN AFTER EWALD
Type of Test Meal in Eighty five Normal Persons
The brackets indicate normal limits for acid and pepsin

mean of 1,319, and a standard deviation of 592 units. Repeated tests on the gastric residuums from a group of twenty three patients, and a similar study of juice obtained after test meals given to three patients showed somewhat less variability. In the face of such marked variations in the values obtained from one person when examined on several days, it is obvious that before one can call any reading abnormal it must be well beyond the range of normal figures.

Effect of Contaminants

Before one can evaluate differences in concentration of pepsin it is necessary to know what effect, if any, is likely to be produced by the presence of a number of common contaminants of the gastric juice The necessary investigations were made both in vitro and in vivo The sub

stances which we felt might be of some importance because of their frequent occurrence in gastric contents were bile, bilirubin, mucin, blood and its several constituents such as plasma, serum, ery throcytes and cry stalline hemoglobin, protein in the form of egg albumen, and peptones. As can be seen in Table 1, all of these substances caused more or less reduction in peptic activity.

TABLE 1

The effect of various substances on the activity of pepsin solution *

| After adding | Units |
|---|-------|
| Dried bile (0 5 cc) | 59 |
| Bilirubin (20 mgm) | 92 |
| Mucin (50 mgm) | 81 |
| Dried plasma (0.5 cc.) | 150 |
| Dried plasma (0.5 cc.) | 127 |
| Dried serum (0.5 cc.) | 96 |
| Washed ervthrocytes, dried (0.1 cc.) | 100 |
| Crystalline hemoglobin (50 mgm) | 152 |
| Egg albumen (20 mgm) | 163 |
| Egg albumen (50 mgm) | 70 |
| Hard boiled egg in one mass (50 mgm) | 272 |
| Hard boiled egg finely divided (50 mgm) | 100 |
| Witte's peptone (20 mgm) | 132 |
| Witte's peptone (50 mgm) | 68 |

^{*} In each experiment a weighed amount of the substance to be tested was added to 1 cc of a solution of pepsin, the activity of which corresponded to 500 units. The figures represent the depressed values obtained after incubation. The amount of injury to peptic activity was represented in each case by the difference between the reading obtained and 500.

It is often stated in the literature that the presence of blood in the gastric contents will decrease proteolytic activity, and that this is due to an antipepsin. Table 2 shows that the ingestion of blood markedly lowered the proteolytic power of gastric contents, but this effect was followed by a stimulation of secretion which soon compensated for the preliminary drops. Since a similar effect was produced by raw liver, and also by beef extract, it is doubtful if the decrease of peptic activity in the presence of blood is due to a specific antipepsin. The same decrease may be found in vitro after the addition of crystalline hemoglobin or other fairly pure constituents of the blood (Table 1). The degree of reduction in activity seems to be roughly a function of the amount of organic material added. The possibility presents itself that the decrease may be due simply to an adsorption which results in the removal of pepsin from solution.

As is well known, the effect of raising the pH is to reduce peptic activity, and an alkaline reaction actually destroys much of the ferment. The effect of alkali when taken into the stomach of a human being is shown in Table 2, experiment 5. Following the ingestion of two Sippy

Unite

TIBLE 2 Experiments in vivo on a patient with a high peptic value

Experiment 1

| Fasting specimen | 4440 |
|--|------|
| | 1410 |
| Thirty minutes after ingestion of 5 cc of dried cow's blood in capsule | 620 |
| Sixty minutes after ingestion of 5 cc of dried cow s blood in capsule | 510 |
| Ninety minutes after ingestion of 5 cc of dried cow's blood in capsule | 820 |
| One hundred twenty minutes after ingestion of 5 cc of dried cow's blood in capsule | 820 |
| Experiment 2 | |
| Fasting specimen | 1850 |
| Thirty minutes after ingestion of 10 cc of human blood | 184 |
| Thirty minutes after ingestion of 10 cc of human blood Thirty minutes after ingestion of second 10 cc of human blood | |
| Thirty infinites after ingestion of second to cc. of numan blood | 910 |
| Experiment 3 | |
| Fasting specimen | 1520 |
| Thirty minutes after ingestion of Liebig extract | 484 |
| Sixty minutes after ingestion of Liebig extract | 1320 |
| Ninety minutes after ingestion of Liebig extract | 810 |
| One hundred twenty minutes after ingestion of Liebig extract | 1520 |
| The state of the s | 1020 |
| Experiment 4 | |
| Fauting specimen | 950 |
| Thirty minutes after ingestion of 60 grams raw liver | 165 |
| Sixty minutes after ingestion of 60 grams raw liver | 420 |
| Ninety minutes after ingestion of 60 grams raw liver | 514 |
| One hundred twenty minutes after ingestion of 60 grams raw liver | 734 |
| Experiment 5 | |
| | 2040 |
| Thirty minutes after ingestion of two Sippy tablets | 180 |
| | 1200 |
| Divery minuted arter ingestion or two Sippy tablets | 1200 |

tablets, containing a total of 30 grains (2 grams) of calcium carbonate and 20 grains (1 30 gram) of sodium bicarbonate, peptic activity was markedly decreased, and the return to the previous reading was slow. This depressing effect of the alkali was the more striking because the experiment was performed on a subject whose normal peptic activity is unusually marked

SUMMARY

It has been found that the Gates method (1) as modified by Gilman and Cowgill (2) gives accurate and reproducible values for the proteolytic activity of a specimen of gastric contents

The variability in readings obtained when successive specimens of fasting residuum from the same subject were used was so great as to destroy their clinical value. More consistent results were obtained with juice obtained after an Ewald type of meal. Standards of normal for pepsin after this type of test meal are published in this paper.

Bile, mucin, blood proteins, albumin, peptones, and alkalies markedly reduced peptic activity. The fact that these substances may modify

peptic activity must be kept in mind in making a clinical study of gastric pepsin

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STUDIES OF GASTRIC PEPSIN II SECRETION OF PEPSIN IN CASES OF DUODENAL ULCER AND PSEUDO-ULCER

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(Received for publication December 23 1932)

Few articles on concentration of pepsin in the gastric juice of patients with disease of the stomach and duodenum are to be found in recent literature, and the results reported by different observers are not always in accord. We shall consider here only the concentration of pepsin in the gastric juice of persons suffering with the syndrome of peptic ulcer.

Wilcox (5), in 1908, reported that the concentration of pepsin in the gastric juice of persons with peptic ulcer and hyperacidity was usually higher, and never lower, than normal Boas (1), in 1925, and Hirsch-Mamroth and Rindfleisch (3) likewise found that the concentration of pepsin was elevated in the presence of ulcer, provided blood was not present in the sample examined, but they quoted other workers who at times failed to find any increase Polland and Bloomfield (4) reported that the range of concentration of pepsin was the same in patients with ulcer as in normal persons

We have estimated the concentration of pepsin by a modification of the Gilman Cowgill method (2), described in the preceding article (6) As an arbitrary standard of measurement a 1 per cent solution of Armour's 1 10,000 commercial pepsin was assumed to contain 1,000 units

In the greater part of the investigation we examined gastric contents removed one hour after the ingestion of a test meal which consisted of eight arrowroot cookies and 400 cc of water. We also determined the content of pepsin in the juice removed from the stomach in the morning, before breakfast. Although the same general conclusions may be drawn from studies of contents removed after a test meal and of juice from the fasting stomach, it is necessary to consider the results obtained with the two technics separately because of differences observed in the absolute values for pepsin

Duodenal ulcer

The diagnosis of duodenal ulcer was made in 274 cases on the basis of the history and fluoroscopic examination. In fifty seven cases the

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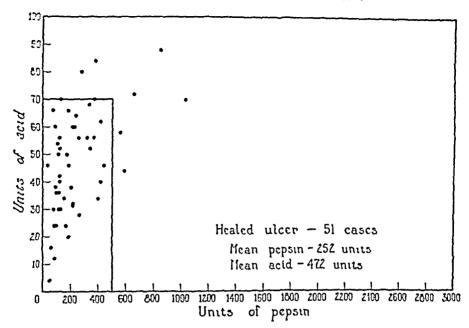


Fig 1 The Distribution of Acid and Pepsin in Healed Duodenal Ulcer The bracket indicates limits of normal

diagnosis was verified at operation — In fifty-one of the 274 cases a diagnosis of duodenal ulcer had been made, the duodenal cap was still deformed, but symptoms of ulcer had not been present for a number of years — Most of the pepsin readings in these cases of presumably healed ulcer (Fig. 1) fell within normal limits, but the arithmetic mean was 252 units as compared with 145 units for the normal group (Table 1)

TABLE 1

Ewald test meal

| | Number of cares | | epsin in units | Free acid in term of ce of normal todium hydroxid | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------|-------|-----------------------|---|-----------------------|--|
| | 01 02 03 | *fean | Standard deviation | Mean | Standard deviation | |
| Normal | 85 | 145 | 125 | 34 2 | 128 | |
| Duodenal ulcer entire group | 274 | 388 | 343 | 55 5 | 180 | |
| Healed | 51 | 252 | 209 | 47 2 | 188 | |
| Viild | 29 | 292 | 334 | 54 9 | 18.3 | |
| Moderate | 92 | 332 | 312 | 55 3 | 162 | |
| Severe | 28 | 824 | 505 | 62 2 | 17 2 | |
| Surgical | 77 | 423 | 300 | 589 | 170 | |
| Hemorrhagic type | 17 | 443 | 272 | 638 | 14 2 | |
| Mulaple ulcers | 15 | 398 | 273 | 61 1 | 158 | |
| Peretrating type | 23 | 407 | 238 | 62 1 | 164 | |
| Obs ructing type | 11 | 198 | 116 | 51 1 | 14 2 | |
| Gastro ulcer | 13 | 230 | 173 | 46.3 | 196 | |
| Ulcers recurring after operation | 18 | 476 | 341 | 55 2 | 20 8 | |
| Pseudo-ulcer | 47 | 467 | 354 | 496 | 180 | |

In the remaining 223 cases the patients complained of active symptoms of duodenal ulcer. The mean value for pepsin presented by these patients was 419 units, which is approximately two and five-tenths times the mean value for normal persons. The readings for pepsin in many cases fell far outside the normal limits.

We next looked to see if there might be a difference between the average concentration of pepsin in cases of mild and severe ulcer. The difficulty, of course, was to find satisfactory criteria for division of the cases into groups. We finally decided to classify the cases according to the treatment which was required. We classified as mild those cases in which the symptoms were so trivial and so easily controlled that no treatment of any kind was indicated, and as moderately severe that large group in which medical treatment gave relief. The mean value for pepsin in the group with mild symptoms was 292 units, only slightly higher than that found among patients with healed ulcer, in the group of patients with more serious trouble it was 332 units (Fig. 2)

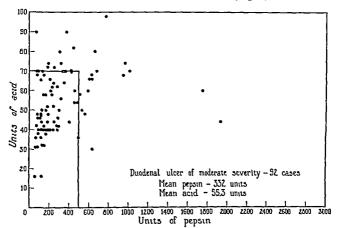


Fig 2 The Distribution of Acid and Pepsin in Duodenal Ulcer of
Moderate Severity
The bracket indicates limits of normal

We considered as severe those cases in which symptoms persisted in spite of the most careful treatment in the hospital. Almost all of the values for pepsin in this group fell outside the limits of normal (Fig. 3), and in many instances very high readings were obtained. The mean value was 824 units, more than two and five tenths times that seen in the ordinary case of duodenal ulcer, and nearly six times that seen in normal

persons In this group we did not include cases in which there was hemorrhage or a tendency to perforation because such complications usually constituted indications for surgical treatment. We did include many of those cases in which the patient was of a tense, nervous, "go-getter"

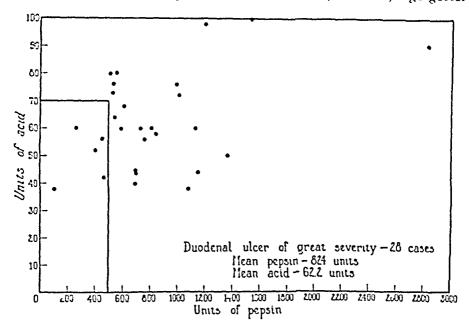


Fig 3 The Distribution of Acid and Persin in Severe Duodenal Ulctr The bracket indicates limits of normal

type, the sort of patient whom gastro-enterologists and gastric surgeons have come to recognize as a poor subject for either medical or surgical treatment. It was in this type of case that the highest readings were obtained

Seventy-seven patients were advised to submit to surgical treatment either because of the presence of some complication or because of the chronicity or intractability of the disease. In this group the average value for pepsin was 423 units, or about 100 units higher than the average for the medically treated patients.

On analyzing the surgical cases we found a hemorrhagic type of ulcer in seventeen, multiple ulcers in fifteen, and penetrating ulcers in twenty-three cases. In these three groups the values for pepsin were somewhat higher than among patients who had a less serious form of the disease. The mean for bleeding ulcers was 443 units, for multiple ulcers it was 398 units, and for penetrating ulcers it was 407 units. Among the group of patients treated surgically there were cleven with some cicatricial obstruction at the pylorus. In most of these cases the ulcer was chronic, in some it appeared to be healed. In the cases in v high there v as moderate

obstruction the mean value for pepsin was even lower than in the group of patients classed as having healed ulcers, namely, 198 units — It should be noted here that all cases of ulcer in which there was gross retention of gastric contents were excluded from this study — This was to avoid the complication of marked dilution of the gastric juice

Fasting juice We estimated the concentration of pepsin in the fasting juice of forty patients with duodenal ulcer. They were divided into two groups first, those with mild, and second, those with intractable, ulcer. It was found that the twenty four who responded readily to treatment had an average value for pepsin of 537 units, as compared with 388 units for normal persons, those with severe symptoms had an average of 1,592 units (Table 2). It is evident that the pepsin in the fasting juice

| TABLE 2 |
|---------------|
| Fasting juice |

| | | | Pep | sin units | Free HCI* | | |
|---|----------------|--------|--------------------|-----------------------|----------------|-----------------------|--|
| Diagnosis | Male | Female | Mean | Standard deviation | Mean | Standard deviation | |
| Normal Moderately severe ulcer Severe ulcer | 13 18 16 | 11 6 | 388 537 1592 | 524 617 1020 | 13 27 43 | 19 24 23 | |

^{*}In terms of cc of normal sodium hydroxide per liter

with the different types of ulcer varies in the same way that it does in the juice after a test meal, except that the actual values are higher and the individual variation is greater

Pseudo ulcer

A study was made of values for pepsin in a group of forty seven patients who had symptoms sufficiently suggestive of ulcer to justify gas tric analysis and fluoroscopic examination of the stomach. In every case the presence of atypical features in the history and the inability of the roentgenologist to detect any deformity in the stomach or cap caused the clinicians to make a diagnosis of pseudo ulcer. The spot diagram (Fig. 4) shows that the distribution of values for pepsin is similar to that in cases of ulcer and that some figures are so high as to resemble closely those found in the presence of the most intractable ulcer.

In many of the cases there was close correlation between the concentration of pepsin in the stomach and the severity of the symptoms. Just as in the case of patients with actual ulcer, there was striking correlation between the amount of pepsin and the degree of tenseness and nervous activity shown by the individual

In six cases in which the diagnosis of pseudo-ulcer was confirmed by the inability of the surgeon at the time of operation to find an ulcer, determinations of pepsin made on fasting juice disclosed an average value of 880 units as compared to the normal mean fasting value of 388 units

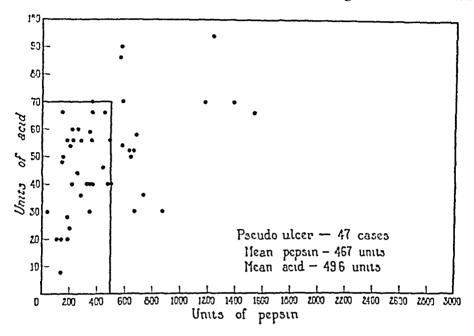


Fig 4 Distribution of Acid and Pepsin in Pseudo-Ulcer
The bracket indicates limits of normal

Gastric ulcer

The diagnosis of gastric ulcer was made in thirteen cases on the basis of roentgenologic examination or surgical exploration. The mean value for pepsin was 230 units, which is slightly higher than normal

Recurrent and gastrojejunal ulcers

There were eighteen patients who, after an operation for relief of peptic ulcer, returned with a new ulcer, either in the duodenum or at the stoma made by gastro-enterostomy. The mean value for pepsin was 476 units. This figure is about one-third higher than that found by us in examination of patients with duodenal ulcer for whom operation was advised. The fact that in many of these cases the gastric juice was diluted by intestinal juice regurgitating through the gastro-enteric stoma makes it seem probable that the secretion of pepsin was even greater than the figures would indicate. It is of interest that the remaining part of the stomach of one of these patients who had undergone extensive gastric resection secreted enough pepsin to push the concentration up to \$50 units.

The study of pepsin is of more clinical value than the study of acid

We were led to a study of gastric pepsin by the fact that measurement of acid has so far been of so little decisive clinical value. The question now is Will the differences which we have found in the secretion of pepsin in different diseases be of any more value than are the measurements of acidity? Several of the early workers felt that there is such a high degree of correlation between the acid and the ferment that little advantage can be gained from determining pepsin except in those cases in which it is desirable to distinguish between achlorhydria and true achylia. Our observations lead us to disagree with this view. Although it is true that high concentrations of pepsin are commonly associated with hyperacidity, and low concentrations with hypoacidity, the rule is by no means invariable, as the coefficients in Table 3 show.

TABLE 3

Relation between concentration of pepsin and free hydrochloric acid in gastric juice

| | Correlation coefficient |
|---|-------------------------|
| Fasting juice | |
| Normal persons | 072 ± 011 |
| Patients with duodenal ulcer | 0.85 ± 0.12 |
| Juice obtained after Ewald test meal | |
| Normal persons | 0.51 ± 0.08 |
| Patients with duodenal ulcer | 0.65 ± 0.13 |
| Juice obtained after stimulation by histamine | |
| Patients with duodenal ulcer | 0.60 ± 0.04 |
| | |

The fact that these coefficients are far from unity shows that often the acid titer and the amount of pepsin do not vary in the same way or to the same degree. When this happens the way is left open for the possibility that a study of the pepsin, another constituent of the gastric juice, will give information of clinical value which was not supplied by titration of the acid alone.

A glance at Figure 5 reveals that although there are definite differences between the mean acidity of normal persons and that of patients with mild and with severe ulcer the distributions overlap so closely that in only a few cases will the physician be able to prophesy, from the gastric acidity alone, which ulcers will be hard to treat. On turning now to the curves representing values of pepsin in the three groups of cases, one sees that there is less overlapping of the distributions and when one obtains a reading higher than 800 or 900 units in a case of ulcer, one can be almost certain that the ulcer will be difficult to cure. Unfortunately it is not possible with the help of determinations of pepsin to distinguish patients with pseudo ulcer from those with real ulcer.

It should be noted, also, that whereas it is almost impossible for anyone to have a free acid titer more than twice the normal average,

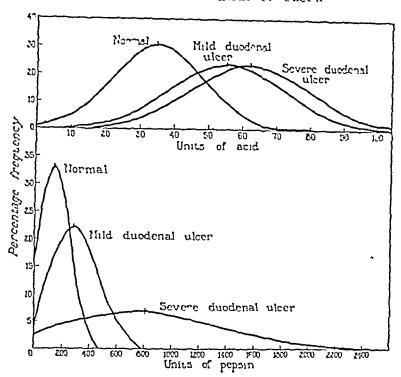


FIG 5 DISTRIBUTION OF PEPSIN AND ACID IN NORMAL PERSONS AND IN PATIENTS WITH MILD AND SEVERE ULCER

readings for pepsin occur from fifteen to twenty times the normal average. It is this widening of the distribution of the measurements made in cases of disease, a widening that carries so many of the figures beyond the possible range of normal, which makes us hopeful that the test will have decided value in clinical practice.

SUMMARY

Values for pepsin are usually increased in the presence of peptic ulcer, and there is a high degree of correlation between the amount of the ferment and the severity and intractability of the symptoms. Unfortunately the determination cannot be used to prove the presence of ulcer because very high values for pepsin are commonly found in cases in which patients are tense and nervous, and present a syndrome resembling that of ulcer. Its main value, therefore, seems to be in estimating the prognosis in cases of known ulcer.

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STUDIES OF UREA EXCRETION VIII THE EFFECTS ON THE UREA CLEARANCE OF CHANGES IN PROTEIN AND SALT CONTENTS OF THE DIET

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(Received for publication January 14 1933)

In the study of the effects of protein rich and protein poor diets on nephritic kidneys, relatively little attention has so far been paid to the changes in functional activity. Indications suggesting that such changes exist are to be found in the observations of Addis and Drury (1) that the "maximum urea clearance" can be slightly but definitely increased by a meal of protein-rich food, and in the recently published findings of Jolliffe and Smith (2) that in dogs fed on a cracker meal diet low in protein, the urea clearance is markedly lower than on a high protein diet

It appeared desirable, therefore, to obtain more definite information concerning the effects of protein on the function of human nephritic kidneys. As criterion of renal function, the standard urea clearance of Möller, McIntosh and Van Slyke (5) has been employed. The cases presented are unselected, except that those were discarded which showed evidence during the preliminary observational period that activity of the nephritic process was causing a progressive lowering of renal function at the time, and also a few in which infections or exacerbations occurred during the experimental period and were likely to change the renal function. These two types of cases were excluded because they were subject to such rapid changes that it would have been difficult to tell whether functional changes under different regimes were due to change in regime or in renal pathology. The patients used were those in which the renal condition appeared to be in a fairly steady state.

In order to obtain evidence of the effect of salt also on the urea clearance, similar studies were carried out with diets containing large and minimal amounts of sodium chloride. The salt variation had no significant influence on the urea clearance. We shall therefore not detail this part of the work, but merely record its negative results. In one instance the ingestion of 65 grams of sodium chloride and its subsequent excretion at high concentration in the urine had no detectible influence on the urea clearance. It was not found possible, by feeding diets poor in salt, to reduce the plasma chloride to such low concentrations as are

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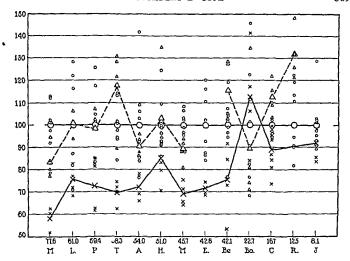


Fig 1 Each Column of Symbols Shows Standard Urea Clearance Values for an Individual Whose Mean Standard Urea Clearance on Normal Diet (about 75 Grams Protein per Day) is Recorded along the Lower Margin

Ordinates represent clearance values expressed for each subject as percentages of his average clearance on a diet with 75 grams of protein

- o = values obtained on normal diet (75 grams protein per day),
- o = mean of these values,
- X = values obtained on low protein diet (40 grams protein per day),
- X = mean of these values,
- $\Delta = \text{values}$ obtained on high protein diet (120 grams protein per day),
- Δ = mean of these values

per minute, as shown by the small crosses When the daily protein intake was increased to 120 grams the standard clearance rose once more to be tween 77 per cent and 94 per cent of the original mean, i.e. to between 59 7 and 73 0 cc. per minute, the individual clearances being indicated by the small triangles

The figure shows that when renal function is unimpaired, or only slightly impaired by the nephritic lesion, as in the first 9 cases, the urea clearance is reduced by from 15 to 40 per cent by diminishing the protein intake from 75 grams to 40 grams per day. Of the remaining cases, with seriously impaired renal functions, two showed a slight reduction of the urea clearance, about 10 per cent, and one was exceptional in having a urea clearance higher on the low protein than on a protein rich diet. No

said by many French writers to cause a nitrogen retention Diets which reduced the urinary NaCl output to less than 1 gram per day, however, were without effect on the urea clearance

METHODS

The usual methods of estimating and calculating the clearance have been employed (5) Urea in both blood and urine has been estimated gasometrically by the method of Van Slyke (7), in the former in 1 cc samples of whole blood obtained by venipuncture, in the latter in a volume of urine appropriate to the urea concentration anticipated Duplicate analyses made in all cases agreed within 1 per cent

After admission to hospital and routine investigation each patient was kept for a week or more on a normal diet containing about 75 grams protein per day. During this time urea clearance determinations, usually eight in number, were made with the patient in bed, for the dual purpose of obtaining average values for the individual on a normal diet, and of making sure that no marked spontaneous change in the urea clearance was taking place. A diet containing 40 grams of protein per day was then given for at least five days before fresh clearance determinations were made. These having been obtained, the protein of the diet was once more increased either to the original 75, or in most cases to 120, grams per day. Rise of the urea clearance during this third period in each of the recorded cases (except the anomalous Bo) was taken as evidence that the depressed clearance in the second period was indeed associated with the low protein diet, and was not an expression of a progressively destructive nephritic process active at the time

RESULTS

Thirteen cases of nephritis have been successfully examined in this manner, and the results are indicated graphically in Figure 1 All the clearance values obtained on a given individual are plotted in a single The thirteen columns thus represent the thirteen cases studied and are arranged in order of decreasing renal function The figure at the bottom of each column is the mean standard urea clearance for that individual on a normal diet, expressed in cubic centimeters of blood per minute The individual clearance values obtained have been plotted as percentages of this figure Thus in each case an ordinate value of 100 per cent represents the average standard urea clearance for that subject on a normal diet To take an example, the first column represents observations on the patient M On a normal diet his mean standard urea clearance was 77 6 cc per minute Individual clearance determinations, plotted as small circles, varied from 112 per cent to 79 per cent of this value On a low protein diet the urea clearance fell to between 51 per cent and 62 5 per cent of the original 77 6 cc, 1e to between 39 6 and 48 5 cc

rise which followed urea ingestion, and was falling, and that the amount of urea formed from the food or glutamic acid was insufficient to check the fall in blood urea. It appears probable, therefore, that the stimulus to increased blood urea clearance was something other than urea itself

In this connection it is of interest that the hypertrophy of the kidneys, which many workers have produced by feeding a high protein diet, could not be fully duplicated by Osborne, Mendel, Park and Winternitz (6) nor by MacKay, MacKay and Addis (4), by feeding urea alone, a fact which tends to suggest that such hypertrophy also is related to the stimulating effect of products other than urea formed from a protein diet

There is, it is true, one gap in the experimental evidence required to confirm the application of this explanation to our results. All the data available on men have been obtained by starting with subjects in ordinary protein nutrition, with the usual blood urea nitrogen levels of 10 to 16 milligrams per 100 cc. To obtain by urea administration the same blood urea changes that are produced by increasing the protein intake from 40 grams to 75 or more grams, one would need to use subjects who had previously been on a diet containing as little as 40 grams of protein. If urea administration to such subjects did not stimulate a rise in the clearance, it would appear clear that the increased clearances obtained in our subjects by increased protein administration were not due to the accompanying rise in blood urea.

SUMMARY

The urea clearance was not affected, in either normal or nephritic subjects, by variations in the sodium chloride content of the diet

Raising the protein content of the diet from 75 grams to 120 grams was also without consistent effect on the urea clearance

However, lowering the protein intake from 75 grams to 40 grams was accompanied by depression of the clearance in 11 out of 12 subjects with normal or nearly normal renal function — In these subjects the clearance on the low protein diet was only 60 to 80 per cent as great as on the 75 gram diet

In three patients with renal function below half normal, the clearance on low protein remained 90 per cent or more of the clearance on the 75 gram diet

In interpreting subnormal urea clearances as measures of renal function, allowance should be made for the fact that on very low protein diets the lower limit of normal variation may extend down to 50 per cent of the usual normal average, instead of to the 70 per cent minimum found under ordinary conditions (5) In subjects with markedly depressed function, however, the clearance appears to be relatively fixed, and little influenced by protein restriction

explanation of this anomalous case is offered. In the remaining case, that of R, the low protein diet was not administered, as her plasma proteins were low and it was felt that such a regime would provoke a recurrence of the edema to which she was liable. This case is included, however, because she showed a well marked rise in her urea clearance when the protein intake was increased to 120 grams per day

The effect of high protein regime was more irregular than that of the low. Of the eleven cases which had the high protein intake during the third period, the clearances of four rose to well above the figures for the first or moderate (75 grams) protein diet period, those of three others returned to the original values, and those of a further three rose well above the low protein diet figures, but failed to return completely to the original level. The remaining case Bo was again anomalous showing an effect precisely the reverse of the other twelve, her clearance being reduced on the high protein diet.

DISCUSSION

In 11 out of the 12 nephritic patients who have been examined a definite reduction in the urea excretory activity of the kidneys has been demonstrable on a low protein diet, when this activity has been estimated by the standard urea clearance test

In this respect our data confirm the observations of Keutmann and McCann (3) which appeared when our experimental work was nearing completion. Keutmann and McCann studied 4 cases of hemorrhagic Bright's disease, and found that the urea clearance was usually higher on high protein than on low protein diets.

In our cases, the effect of low protein diet in reducing the urea clearance is relatively less when the renal activity is already seriously impaired by disease. This fact is in accord with other evidences that the kidney shows a tendency to diminishing variability of activity as the nephritic lesion progresses. Possibly in this instance it is due to retained metabolites stimulating the kidney to a sustained maximal effort.

In all cases the rise in urea clearance caused by increasing the protein intake was accompanied by a rise in the blood urea concentration. However, it appears probable that the kidneys are stimulated by some protein metabolite other than urea. Moller, McIntosh, and Van Slyke (5) found that, when the urea nitrogen content of the blood was increased from the usual normal range of 10 to 16 mgm per 100 cc to two or three times as much by feeding urea, the clearance value was not affected. Addis and Drury (1) found that, when the blood urea was first similarly raised by urea ingestion, and later a protein meal or 20 grams of glutamic acid was taken, the meal or amino acid caused a definite decrease in the clearance. The increase in clearance after food or glutamic acid occurred despite the facts that the blood urea had some hours before passed the peak of the

rise which followed urea ingestion, and was falling, and that the amount of urea formed from the food or glutamic acid was insufficient to check the fall in blood urea. It appears probable, therefore, that the stimulus to increased blood urea clearance was something other than urea itself

In this connection it is of interest that the hypertrophy of the kidneys, which many workers have produced by feeding a high protein diet, could not be fully duplicated by Osborne, Mendel, Park and Winternitz (6) nor by MacKay, MacKay and Addis (4), by feeding urea alone, a fact which tends to suggest that such hypertrophy also is related to the stim ulating effect of products other than urea formed from a protein diet

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THERMAL CHANGES IN PERIPHERAL VASCULAR DISEASE DURING SYMPATHETIC GANGLIONECTOMY UNDER GENERAL ANESTHESIA

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(Received for publication February 2 1933)

A great deal of confusion has existed regarding the differential diagnosis of Raynaud's disease, thrombo angutis obliterans, and arteriosclerosis Ravnaud's disease affects, predominantly, young women, and because it is caused by vasospasm is completely relieved in the uncomplicated case. by sympathetic ganglionectomy It need not be confused with thrombo angutis obliterans and arteriosclerosis with occlusion Arteriosclerosis with occlusion is usually found among elderly people, and since vaso spasm is rarely, if ever, an element in the condition, it is not affected by sympathetic ganglionectomy Thrombo angutis obliterans practically always affects young men, has an element of vasospasm, and many of the patients can be satisfactorily treated by sympathetic ganglionectomy Simple tests have been sought which would aid in differential diagnosis and which, by revealing the degree of vasodilation possible, would help to determine the suitability of these cases for operation, and, in some degree, indicate the probable prognosis. Observations made on patients undergoing sympathetic ganglionectomy under general anesthesia revealed certain thermal changes which may prove of value in this connec tion

With the use of general anesthesia, administered by inhalation, it was noted that extremities which were not denervated were temporarily relieved of vasomotor spasm, and that there was definite postoperative clinical improvement of these extremities. It was difficult to interpret this temporary improvement, but it was thought for a time that the entire sympathetic nervous system was reflexly or indirectly affected by operation on, or manipulation of, any part. Adson (1) ventured the suggestion that the general anesthetic probably influenced the entire sympathetic nervous system by affecting the vasoconstrictor center in the diencephalon. Morton and Scott (6) measured the changes in cutaneous

¹ Read before the Central Society for Clinical Research, Chicago, Illinois November 4 1932

temperature caused by different anesthetic agents and called attention to the different temperature gradients in the extremities of normal people. They suggested the use of general anesthesia as a means of selecting cases suitable for sympathetic ganglionectomy, but concluded that it was not satisfactory. Sheard, Rynearson and Craig (9) have shown experimentally that in dogs under anesthesia by inhalation, generalized vasodilation occurred and that this was not influenced by operation on the sympathetic system. Also they showed that under general anesthesia the changes in the temperatures of intact and of sympathectomized extremities, with variations in environmental temperature, were similar

Herrick, Essex and Baldes (5), using a modification of the thermostromular method of Rein, have shown that following unilateral sympathetic ganglionectomy on dogs, the flow in the femoral arteries on the sympathectomized side was about twice as great as that on the intact side. There was no outstanding difference between the readings of the two sides when, following the operations, these animals were placed under ether anesthesia. Hence, it may be concluded that during surgical anesthesia by ether, there develops vasodilation of the vessels of the extremities as great as that following sympathetic ganglionectomy.

Thus, it would seem that during operations on the sympathetic nervous system under anesthesia by inhalation, there occurred certain physiologic changes which could be traced directly to the anesthetic, and which were not altered by removal of ganglia. By observing the changes in cutaneous temperature during operations under general anesthesia, certain important facts were obtained which we believe will prove of diagnostic and prognostic value in treating cases of peripheral vascular disease

This study consisted of continuous observations of surface temperature of the extremities of subjects with Raynaud's disease and thrombo-anguitis obliterans during the course of thoracic and lumbar sympathetic ganglionectomy Repeated readings of temperature were made preoperatively with the subjects at rest and with the room temperature at approximately 24° C A portable electromotive thermometer, which is a modification of the ensemble described by Sheard (8), was used throughout the investigations The instrument used carried four thermocouples By means of a rotary switch, any for application to the hands and feet thermocouple could be placed in the circuit and the temperature indicated by each of the thermocouples could be read quickly and accurately on the micro-ammeter calibrated in degrees Centigrade The thermocouples were left in place during the entire course of the operation, so that graphic records were obtained of the changes in surface temperature of the extremities as influenced by anesthesia alone and by the interruption of the sympathetic innervation to the extremities The operations were carried out under general anesthesia with nitrous oxide, oxygen and ether, or ethylene, oxygen and ether Regardless of induction and maintenance

with gas, oxygen, or ether administered by the drop method, the relative changes in the temperature curve were the same Observations of the blood pressure and pulse were made during this period For a control study, similar observations of changes of surface temperature were made on subjects during the course of operation for other conditions

The rise in surface temperature of the extremities of an apparently normal subject is illustrated in Figure 1 and represents a normal response

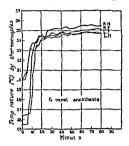


FIG 1 COURSE OF THERMAL CHANGES IN HANDS AND FEET OF A PATIENT WITH APPARENTLY NORMAL VASOMOTOR REACTION TO GENERAL ANESTHESIA R H, right hand R F, right foot L F, left foot, and L H, left hand

There was a relatively sharp and uniform rise in the of vasodilation surface temperature of all four extremities, within the first ten minutes after the induction of anesthesia. The maximal rise of surface temperature occurred within twenty to thirty minutes and remained constant for one hour, the pulse rate varied from 70 to 80 beats each minute, and the systolic blood pressure varied from 122 to 130 mm. Hg and the diastolic. from 60 to 74 mm Hg

The marked similarity between the rise in surface temperature of the extremities in a subject with Raynaud's disease and that of the normal person is illustrated by Figure 2a The same sharp rise in surface temperature occurred in all four extremities immediately after induction of anesthesia, and reached its maximum within twenty to twenty five min-Practically no change was observed in the surface temperature of the extremities after this period. This is what one would expect in a case of Raynaud's disease, which is a primary vasospastic disturbance involving the vessels of the extremities It is interesting to note that no change in the surface temperature of the lower extremities was observed following interruption of the sympathetic nerve supply In other words, the maximal rise in surface temperature had occurred immediately following induction of the anesthesia, and severance of the sympathetic nerve supply caused no additional rise in surface temperature. This is of particular interest because it was formerly a clinical impression among certain

workers that immediately following interruption of the sympathetic nerve supply to a given extremity, there was always a sharp rise of surface temperature and an increase in flow of blood in that extremity

The rise in surface temperature of the extremities of subjects with thrombo-anguitis obliterans varied considerably among different persons

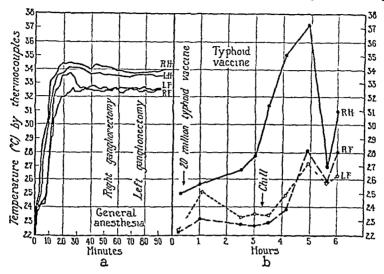


FIG 2 INCREASE IN SURFACE TEMPERATURE OF THE HANDS AND FEET OF A WOMAN AGED TWENTY-THREE YEARS WHO HAD RAYNAUD'S DISEASE

Pulsations in the peripheral vessels were normal a The rise with general anesthesia b The rise obtained with intravenous injection of typhoid vaccine Rise in mouth temperature was 11°C R H, right hand, R F, right foot, L F, left foot, and L H, left hand

and corresponded clinically to the degree of occlusive vascular disease present (Figs 3a, 4a, 5a and 6a) In thrombo-angutis obliterans, one is dealing primarily with an occlusive vascular disease which involves the extremities Vasospastic disturbance in the collateral circulation is invariably present to some degree Interruption of the sympathetic nerve supply to the affected extremities permits the maximal flow of blood through the collateral circulation, but it is obvious that the occluded vessels are not affected by this surgical procedure In cases in which there is a small degree of occlusion and a large degree of superimposed vasospasm in the collateral circulation, the rise in surface temperature of the extremities parallels that observed in cases of Raynaud's disease In moderately advanced cases of thrombo-angutis obliterans, uniform rises in surface temperature of all four extremities were not observed, but in early cases the rise in surface temperature of the extremities may closely simulate that observed in Raynaud's disease, as illustrated in Figure 3a

It is interesting to compare the various rises in temperature obtained with intravenous administration of typhoid vaccine in a given case and

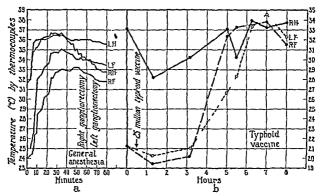


Fig 3 Variation in Surface Temperatures of the Hands and Feet of a Man Aged Thirty two Years Who Had Thrombo anglitis Obliterans

Pulsations in the right and left ulnar, radial femoral and popliteal arteries were normal. In other arteries pulsations were reduced as follows in the right dorsalis pedis, 80 per cent in the left dorsalis pedis, 65 per cent, in the right posterior tibial, 35 per cent, and in the left posterior tibial 25 per cent a The rise with general anesthesia b The rise obtained with intravenous injection of typhoid vaccine. Rise in mouth temperature was 0.5° C. R. H., right hand R. F., right foot L. F., left foot, and L. H., left hand

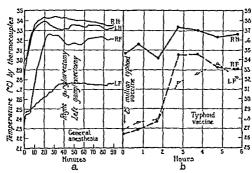


Fig 4 Increase in Surface Temperature of the Hands and Feet of a Man Aged Forty Years Who Had Thrombo anglitis Obliterans

The right and left ulnar radial and femoral arteries pulsated normally Pulsations in both popheal arteries were reduced approximately 50 per cent in the right and left dorsalis pedis and posterior tibial arteries pulsations were absent Circulatory insufficiency was more marked in the left than in the right foot a. The rise with general anesthesia b. The rise obtained with intravenous injection of typhoid vaccine. Rise in mouth temperature was 1.3° C. R. H., right hand R. F., right foot L. F., left foot, and L. H., left hand

that obtained following induction of general anesthesia. We have previously been of the opinion that similar temperature curves could be obtained. This, however, proved not to be true, for there was marked dissimilarity between the curves obtained following intravenous administration of typhoid vaccine and that following induction of general anesthesia (Figs. 2b, 3b, 4b, 5b and 6b). This in part may be due to the fact that some subjects are either refractory to or react poorly to intravenous administration of typhoid vaccine. The maximal flow of blood to the extremities occurred following both procedures, but it occurred more quickly after general anesthesia than after intravenous administration of typhoid vaccine. With general anesthesia, fewer fluctuations were observed after the surface temperature had reached its maximum. It

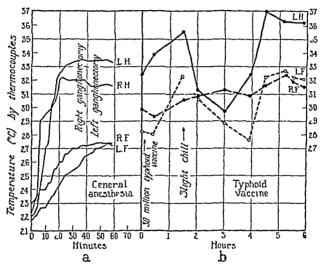


Fig 5 Variation in Surface Temperature of the Hands and Feet of a Man Aged Twenty-nine Years Who Had Thrombo-anglitis Obliterans

Pulsations in the right and left ulnar, radial, and femoral arteries, and in the right popliteal arteries, were normal, those in the left popliteal arteries were reduced 25 per cent. Pulsations in the right and left dorsalis pedis arteries were reduced 40 per cent, and the right and left posterior tibial arteries were occluded. The circulatory insufficiency was the same in both feet. a The rise with general anesthesia b The rise obtained with intravenous injection of typhoid vaccine. Rise in mouth temperature was 22°C. R. H., right hand, R. F., right foot, L. F., left foot, and L. H., left hand.

was also evident that the maximal flow of blood to the extremities following general anesthesia occurred within twenty or thirty minutes and was not increased after that time. The fluctuation in the curves of surface temperature following intravenous injection of typhoid vaccine is accounted for, in part at least, by the chill which so frequently develops Brown originally used typhoid vaccine intravenously to determine what he designated "the vasomotor index" He and Adson (2, 3) used this

method for selecting subjects with Raynaud's disease and thromboangutis obliterans for sympathetic ganglionectomy. It has proved to be a satisfactory means of selecting cases for this surgical procedure. In addition, the intravenous administration of typhoid vaccine or "fever therapy" undoubtedly represents the most important medical method of treatment for these diseases. This is particularly true with reference to thrombo angutis obliterans

Other methods for selecting cases for sympathetic ganglionectomy are spinal anesthesia, which is applicable only to the lower extremities, and paravertebral injection of procaine in the cervicothoracic region for the upper extremities
Oral administration of alcohol, intramuscular injec-

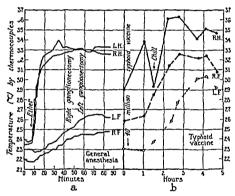


Fig 6 Variation in Surface Temperature of Hands and Feet of a Man Aged Thirty two Years Who Had Thrombo anglitis Obliterans

Pulsations in the right ulnar, radial, and femoral arteries, and in the left radial and femoral arteries, were normal Pulsations were absent in the other palpable vessels
Circulatory insufficiency was more marked in the right than in the left foot
a The rise with general anesthesia b The rise obtained with intravenous injection of typhoid vaccine Rise in mouth temperature was 1° C R H, right hand R F, right foot L F, left foot, and L H, left hand

tion of acetylcholine, application of heat, and many other procedures also have been used with varying degrees of success. The procedure of observing surface temperatures of the subject under anesthesia affords a satisfactory method for investigating the amount and extent of vasospastic disturbances particularly in the extremities of subjects with Raynaud's disease and thrombo anguits obliterans. If satisfactory rises in the surface temperature of the involved extremities are not observed after induction of anesthesia, it is evident that an additional rise will not develop after interruption of the sympathetic innervation. The

observations were made in investigating cases of vasospastic scleroderma and chronic infectious arthritis Thermal changes under general anesthesia give valuable information from the prognostic standpoint in subjects with thrombo-anguitis obliterans Accurate information can be obtained regarding the extent of the occlusive process in the extremities and the amount of superimposed vasospasm in the collateral circulation With the history of the case, the physical examination, and the information derived from such a study, the prognosis in a given case can be estimated fairly adequately

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Continuous observations of surface temperature, before and during sympathetic ganglionectomy, were made on all four extremities of subnects with Raynaud's disease and thrombo-angutis obliterans electromotive thermometer was used The difference between these two diseases is well illustrated by this study General anesthesia alone produced maximal vasodilation in Raynaud's disease and thrombo-angutis obliterans Severance of the sympathetic nerves did not cause additional In Raynaud's disease a prompt and uniform vasodilating vasodilation response was observed in the peripheral vessels of all four extremities, but in thrombo-angutis obliterans uniform response was absent because the occlusive process in the vessels of all four extremities is never the same in thrombo-angutis obliterans

The graphic records made with anesthesia at the time of operation serve as a check on preoperative studies, carried out with other vasodilating agents If satisfactory rises in the surface temperature of the involved extremities are not observed after induction of general anesthesia, it is evident that an additional rise will not develop after interruption of the sympathetic innervation

General anesthesia constitutes a satisfactory method for investigating thermal changes in cases of thrombo-angutis obliterans, Raynaud's disease, vasospastic scleroderma, and arthritis, prior to and during sympathetic ganglionectomy Valuable information may be obtained regarding the amount and extent of vasospasm in the vessels of the extremities, particularly in the collateral circulation of subjects with thromboangutis obliterans, and the method gives accurate information regarding the degree of occlusive process in this group of cases Vessels of patients who are refractory to, or react poorly to, other vasodilating agents will usually undergo maximal vasodilation when general anesthesia is administered

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GLYCOLYSIS IN THE BLOOD OF PATIENTS WITH PERNICIOUS ANEMIA

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(Received for publication February 7, 1933)

Following the discovery by Warburg that tumor cells have quantita tive and qualitative differences from those of normal tissues with regard to their carbohydrate metabolism, many investigators have demonstrated that the method of glycolysis was most satisfactory for the study of the metabolism of the blood cells. Maclean and Weir (1) pointed out the role played by the different blood elements in glycolysis, and showed that the erythrocytes were a vital factor in the sugar consumption of normal blood. Inasmuch as the red blood cells play an important part in the glycolytic activity of normal blood, and since pernicious anemia is a disease primarily involving the red cells (both number and type), a study of the glycolysis of the blood in this malady has been undertaken for further investigation of the metabolism of the red cells

METHODS

Blood sugar determinations were made from the blood of nine patients with pernicious anemia before treatment and at the height of the reticulo cyte response, following ventriculin therapy Red cell, white cell and reticulocyte counts were made on corresponding days

The blood sugar values were calculated according to the micro method of Folin and Wu (2) All the estimations were made from blood samples obtained before breakfast at 8 A M. The usual procedure was to withdraw 10 to 15 cc of blood from the arm vein under sterile precautions, no tourniquet being used in order to avoid stasis. The blood was discharged into a large test tube, mixed with heparin, and kept in a warm room at a temperature of 37° C. Heparin was used as an anti-coagulant as it was shown by Falcon Lesses (3) to have no appreciable effect on the rate of glycolysis.

The blood sugar content was determined immediately after the re moval of the specimen from the patient, and then at hourly intervals for 5 hours to estimate the glycolytic activity. The red blood cell and white blood cell counts were made with U.S. Bureau of Standards pipettes and Neubauer-Levy counting chambers. Reticulocyte estimations were made from brilliant cresyl blue film preparations.

TABLE I Rate of glycolysis in pernicious anemia during relapse

| 11 | | 8 H | 1 | | u - | | | • - | | | | | 1. |
|------------------------------|------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|------|------|-------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|---------|
| | | Average per hour | | 12.4 | | | | | | | | 2 8 9 | 64 |
| - decoup | hour | 5th hour | | 0 | , 5 | 2 0 | | ۷ | | # 15 | | # W | 5 |
| i mem ei | ood per ho | 4th hour | | 16 | ی د | ~ | | 2 11 | > < | ۲ ح | > < | # W | ro |
| elycolvana | per 100 cc blood per 1 | 3d hour | | 4 | ; ' | 4 | | · « | 2.0 | - 0 | | 4 77 | 9 |
| Rate of | per | 2d hour | | Ξ | - | . 1/7 | 5 | ? - | ı V | | 3 6 | 4 | 7 |
| | | 1st hour | | 17 | | . 0 | `= | 12 | 12 | 3 0 | · c | 20 | 6 |
| | | 5 hours | | 70 | × × | 47 | | 2,02 | 7.5 | 33 | 10,2 | 101 | 76 |
| lood | | 4 hours | | 79 | 89 | 25 | 75 | 8 8 | 70 | 5 | 1 | 104 | 81 |
| r 100 cc b | Values after | 3 hours | | 95 | 74 | 28 | 9 | 83 | 83 | 100 | 7. | 107 | 86 |
| Mgm glucose per 100 cc blood | | 2 hours | | 109 | 80 | 62 | 65 | 91 | 8 | 108 | 117 | 109 | 92 |
| Mgm | | 1 hour | | 120 | 87 | 29 | 75 | 92 | 95 | 121 | 120 | 113 | 66 |
| | Initial | values | | 137 | 94 | 28 | 98 | 104 | 107 | 130 | 120 | 115 | 108 |
| | Reticulo- cyte | | per cent | 2.0 | 0.5 | 3.1 | 0.7 | 3.7 | 18 | 80 | 1.2 | 16 | 1.7 |
| | White blood cell | Junos | | 8400 | 2200 | 7450 | 2000 | 2000 | 2550 | 2000 | 4900 | 3650 | 5405 |
| | Red blood cells | | millions per cu mm | 198 | 2 90 | 1 80 | 2.27 | 1 20 | 1 38 | 181 | 83 | 1 27 | 171 |
| | Case | | | - | 7 | 8 | ₹ | ĸ | 9 | _ | ∞ | 6 | Average |

DATA

In Table I are presented the results of the glucose determinations of the blood from 9 cases with pernicious anemia during relapse. The average initial glucose value is 108 0 mgm, per 100 cc blood. There is a uniform rate of glycolysis averaging about 6.4 mgm, per hour, the limits being 5 to 9 mgm. The average rate of glycolysis per hour per million red cells is about 3.7 mgm, which is approximately the same as in normal blood.

In Table II are listed the results of the blood sugar determinations of 9 patients with pernicious anemia at the height of the reticulocyte response following ventriculin therapy — The initial average glucose value is 100 mgm per 100 cc blood — The average rate of glycolysis per hour is 10 2 mgm , the extremes being 8 to 13 mgm — The average rate of glycolysis per hour per million red cells is 5 4 mgm — These averages are about 65 per cent more than the glycolytic rate before treatment

Compared to the standard rate of glycolysis of normal blood as es tablished by Schmitz and Glover (4), and Falcon Lesses (3), the glycolytic activity of the blood in pernicious anemia during relapse or early remission is markedly retarded. In Chart 1 is a comparison of the average rate of glycolysis of 9 cases with pernicious anemia during relapse and in early remission with normal glycolytic activity as determined by Schmitz and Glover, and Falcon Lesses

Although the initial average glucose values in the cases of pernicious anemia were slightly elevated, they remained within the upper limits of normal. Many investigators have pointed out the fact that glycolysis proceeds at a faster rate with a high initial glucose concentration. In view of this, then, the rate of glycolysis in pernicious anemia would be even slower by comparison, since the initial glucose values are higher than those of normal blood. It is further noted that the initial values of the blood sugar determinations of patients with pernicious anemia in early remission are less than those of the patients in relapse, yet the average rate of glycolysis in the former cases is about 65 per cent more. In all instances, glycolysis appears to progress at a fairly uniform rate, averaging 15 to 17 mgm per hour in the normal, 5 to 9 mgm per hour in pernicious anemia during relapse (red blood cell counts from 0 83 to 2 90 millions per cu. mm.), and 8 to 13 mgm per hour in pernicious anemia during early remission (red blood cell counts from 0 80 to 2 90 millions per cu. mm.)

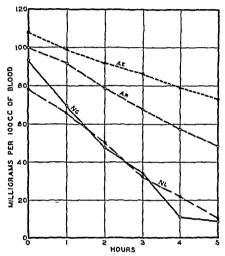
Calculated from figures for normal, the average rate of glycolysis per hour per million red blood cells is about 3 5 mgm. In pernicious and mia, the average rate of glycolysis per hour per million red blood cells is 3 7 mgm. The decreased rate of glycolysis noted in the blood in anemia as compared to that in the normal blood was definitely proportionate to the decreased number of red blood cells. In the cases of pernicious ane-

Rate of glycolysis in permicious anemia in early remission following ventriculin therapy TABLE II

| }} } } | | Average per hour | | 16 | 8 | * « | , 1 | 7 7 7 | 000 |) o | 0 0 | 12 | 10 2 |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|-------|------|----------------|----------------|-------|------|----------|------|------------|---------|
| discose | ur | 5th hour | | = | . ~ | 000 | | 3 5 | 2 1 | , = | 20 | √ ∞ | 6 |
| in mem of | ood per ho | 4th hour | | 10 | 0 | , C | ~ | 1.0 | ı v | , = | 1 5 | 96 | 10 |
| alvcolvana | per 100 cc blood per hour | 3d hour | | - | 0 | · oc | 20. | 2 ~ | ? | × | 0 | · ∞ | 11 |
| Rate of | ped | 2d hour | | 32 | , ∞ | 0 | 16 | 2 0 | ` | 9 | 2 | 9 | 13 |
| | | 1st hour | | 7 | 6 | . 6 | , v | 10 | 14 | 0 | . — | ເທ | 8 |
| | | 5 hours | | 31 | 44 | 37 | 30* | 30* | 99 | 28 | 8 | 99 | 49 |
| lood | | 4 hours | | 42 | 20 | 45 | 43 | 40 | 71 | 89 | 8 | 74 | 58 |
| r 100 cc. b | Values after | 3 hours | | 61 | 59 | 55 | 51 | 52 | 92 | 79 | 66 | 83 | 89 |
| Mgm glucose per 100 cc. blood | | 2 hours | | 72 | 89 | 63 | 71 | 70 | | 87 | 108 | 91 | 79 |
| Mgm | | 1 hour | | 104 | 20 | 72 | 87 | 8 | 88 | 93 | 120 | 16 | 92 |
| | Interest | values | | 111 | 82 | 81 | 6 | 108 | 102 | 102 | 121 | 102 | 100 |
| | Reticulo cyte | | per cent | 15 5 | 0.9 | 15 7 | 165 | 22 0 | 200 | 12.5 | 420 | 15 7 | 18 4 |
| | White blood cell | count | | 12500 | 2000 | 6950 | | 5500 | 4650 | 2750 | 5500 | 9500 | 6544 |
| | Red blood cells | | millions per cu mm | 2 13 | 2 90 | 2 25 | | 1 80 | 1 30 | 2 10 | 8 | 1 60 | 1 86 |
| | Case number | | | | 7 | က | 4 | ເດ | o | <u>_</u> | ∞ | 6 | Average |

* Less than 30 mgm

mia in early remission, the blood presents, in addition to a decreased number of red cells, a marked increase in the number and percentage of immature red cells or reticulocytes. The average rate of glycolysis per hour per million red blood cells in this instance is 5.4 mgm. Compared to the rate of glycolysis in normal blood there is a decrease proportional to the decreased number of red cells present. However, in comparison to the rate of glycolysis per hour per million red blood cells, in pernicious



GLYCOLYTIC RATE IN VITRO OF NORMAL AND PERNICIOUS ANEMIA BLOOD

NG= NORMAL OF SCHMITZ -GLOVER -----17 CASES
NL= NORMAL OF FALCON -LESSES ------8 CASES
AE= PERNICIOUS ANEMIA BLOOD BEFORE.
AR= PERNICIOUS ANEMIA BLOOD AT HEIGHT OF REFILILILOCYTE RESPONSE-9 CASES

CHART I

anemia in early remission the glycolytic activity is more rapid than in normal blood. Per unit number of red blood cells (with all factors constant), the only difference between the two is the increased number of reticulocytes. This one factor probably accounts for the accelerated rate of glycolysis which is present in the blood in early remission. As suggested by Barer, Needles and Baldridge (5), this increase in the glycolytic activity may indicate that immature red blood cells have a more active metabolism than adult red blood cells.

Five of the patients had higher red cell counts a week after therapy

was instituted, two the same, and one less, yet in all instances the rate of glycolysis was faster with the presence of increased numbers of reticulocytes In Case 6, the rate of glycolysis was determined before therapy, at the height of the reticulocyte response, and after the immature red cells returned to normal numbers The glycolytic activity was accelerated when the reticulocytes were present in increased numbers, although the red cell count in this instance was the lowest This is added evidence that the type of cell present is as important as the number of cells .

According to Glover, Daland, and Schmitz (6), there is a difference of 0 004 mgm per hour in the rate of glycolysis with white cell counts showing a variation of 10,000 per cu mm In the 9 cases of pernicious anemia, the greatest difference in white cells was 6000 per cu mm It would seem that the effect of the white blood cells on the rate of glycolysis in pernicious anemia is extremely small, the glycolytic activity being primarily correlated with the number and type of red cells which were present

CONCLUSIONS

1 The average rate of glycolysis per hour in vitro in the blood of 9 cases of pernicious anemia in relapse was 64 mgm, the range being 5 to 9 mgm at 37° C

The average rate of glycolysis per hour in the blood of 9 cases of pernicious anemia in early remission was 10 2 mgm, the range being 8 to

13 mgm at 37° C

- 3 The average rate of glycolysis per hour per million red blood cells in blood of normal individuals is 3.5 mgm, in pernicious anemia in relapse 3 7 mgm, in pernicious anemia in early remission 5 4 mgm at 37° C
- 4 The retarded rate of glycolysis in pernicious anemia is proportional to the red cell decrease
- 5 With all other factors constant, the increase in the rate of glycolysis per hour per million red cells in pernicious anemia in early remission is associated with the increased number of reticulocytes present

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PLASMA PROTEIN CHANGES AND SUSPENSION STABILITY OF THE BLOOD IN LOBAR PNEUMONIA

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(Received for publication November 12 1932)

Numerous studies have been made on the relation of fractional blood protein changes to bacterial infection and immunity. The subject is of especial importance in view of the renewed interest regarding the association of immune bodies with the globulins and recent studies in regard to the effects of blood protein changes and plasma viscosity on specific and non specific agglutination reactions (1, 2) Since the early experiments of Langstein and Mayer (3), it has been generally found that a relative or absolute increase of the globulin fraction and a decrease in the albumin fraction occur during and after various bacterial infections Glaessner (4) and later Hurwitz and his co workers (5) showed that increases in globulin may occur during the course of immunization as well believed that the globulin increase indicated disturbed metabolism and that no direct parallelism existed between the amount of globulin and the degree of immunity There was no constant relationship between the increased amount of globulin and the antitoxic potency of prepared sera Similar findings were noted by Schmidt and Tulitschinskaja (6) and Studies on fractional blood protein changes in malaria, typhoid fever and after typhoid vaccination were made by Lloyd and Paul (7) They observed a marked decrease in the albumin fraction, an increase in the euglobulin and slight or no changes in the total globulin during the acute stage of typhoid fever and malaria Similar but less marked changes followed vaccination with typhoid bacilli

Many studies have been made on the blood protein changes in lobar pneumonia Kumpf (8) collected data from 29 reports. It was generally agreed that the total protein was lowered, the fibrinogen and globulin increased and the albumin decreased in amount. No particular attention, however, was given to the speed with which changes in plasma proteins occur after the onset of infection or the time required before the normal equilibrium was regained.

Increase of plasma globulin and fibrinogen during infections causes a decrease of the suspension stability of the blood and consequent reduction of the sedimentation time of erythrocytes The correlation between plasma protein changes and sedimentation time has been demonstrated

repeatedly (9, 10, 11, 12, 13) In a statistical analysis of the effect of blood protein fractions on the sedimentation rates in a large series of mixed clinical cases, Westergren and his co-workers (12) found a distinct correlation for fibrinogen and globulin and a negative correlation for albumin Other factors, including hydremia, anemia, changes in cell volume and color index, also influence the suspension stability (14, 15, 16, 17) Possibly because of these other factors, a number of observers have been unable to establish a constant correlation between fractional protein changes and sedimentation time (18, 19, 20, 21) In two reports (19, 21) the changes in the amount of fibrinogen, which is known to play the most important role in suspension stability, were not measured

The studies reported in this paper were undertaken to determine the correlation between fractional plasma protein changes, plasma viscosity and the sedimentation time of erythrocytes during and after lobar pneumonia

METHODS

Plasma Protein Determinations (Supervised by Dr Grace Medes) Twenty cc of blood was withdrawn from the arm vein with minimum stasis, and oxalated Plasma protein fractions were determined by Berglund's modification (22) of Howe's method using sodium sulphate as a salting-out agent Nitrogen determinations were made by the micro-Kjeldahl technic The average normal protein values obtained with this method in grams per 100 cc plasma were

| Total protein | 6 67 | | |
|---------------|------|--|----|
| Albumin | 4 07 | | |
| | | fibrinogen | 29 |
| 0.1.1 | 0.50 | euglobulin | 68 |
| Globulin | 2 59 | pseudoglobulin I | 94 |
| | | fibrinogen euglobulin pseudoglobulin I pseudoglobulin II | 68 |

Sedimentation time At the risk of confusing comparative data, the sedimentation time was observed by employing the usual standard hospital apparatus in place of special tubes. Nine-tenths cc of blood was drawn into a tuberculin syringe (4 mm diameter) containing 0 1 cc of a 10 per cent solution of sodium citrate. The syringe was inverted a number of times to insure thorough mixing, the needle was removed and replaced by a short piece of rubber tubing. The end of the tube was bent back along the barrel of the syringe and fastened with a rubber band. The syringe was placed in a vertical position, stoppered and observed at room temperature. The number of minutes required for the erythrocyte level to reach the 0 6 cc mark was arbitrarily considered to be the sedimentation time. The average normal sedimentation time by this method was 3 hours or more.

The Hess viscosimeter was used for the determination of plasma viscosity. According to the technic employed the viscosity of normal plasma was from 1 6 to 1 7

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THE BLOOD IN CASES OF UNEXPLAINED GASTRIC

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(Received for publication January 23 1933)

The question of the relationship of gastric anacidity to anemia has recently been the subject of renewed interest and study. Some writers believe that people with unexplained achlorhydria are potential cases of pernicious anemia, subacute combined sclerosis or hypochromic anemia. (microcytic, idiopathic, achylic, simple). Others, however, feel that the view that anacidity bears a causal relationship to these disorders requires further support and that in most cases defective gastric secretion is a harmless variation from the normal

While it must be admitted that many patients with anemia have a gastric anacidity no comparative study, as far as we know, has been made of the blood in comparable groups of people on the one hand with defective and on the other with normal gastric juice, inasmuch as a control of this sort seems fundamental in interpreting the problem we have carried out such observations and they are herewith reported

LITERATURE

Einhorn (1) (1892) demonstrated that anacidity can be present for several years without the development of pernicious anemia. Later (1903) he (2) found some degree of anemia in twelve out of fifteen cases and in four the hemoglobin was below 60 per cent. Three of these patients probably had pernicious anemia.

At the International Congress of Medicine in London (1913) Faber (3) proposed that the anemia frequently associated with achylia gastrica, was a secondary phenomenon produced by an absence of gastric secretion Among two hundred and one cases of achylia gastrica, Faber found fiftynine with a hemoglobin below 80 per cent Twenty two were examples of Addison's anemia, and thirty seven, of simple anemia Twenty two of the cases of simple anemia were severe, the hemoglobin being below 65 per cent Weinberg (4) (1920) states that the blood picture is often

¹ Supported in part, by a grant from the Rockefeller Fluid Research Fund of the School of Medicine Stanford University

² Fellow in Medicine, National Research Council, 1932-1933

For the purpose of convenience, this condition will be referred to in this paper as hypochromic anemia

abnormal in anacidity, but Alsberg (5) (1921) noted anemia in only one of his seventy cases. Hurst has maintained for many years that the absence of hydrochloric acid from the gastric secretion is the essential predisposing cause of Addison's anemia and subacute combined sclerosis. For his conceptions, the reader is referred to his papers which have been collected into a single volume (6)

Hunter (7) (1923) analyzed the findings in sixty patients with anacidity most of whom had chronic diarrhea. Seven had a moderate or severe secondary anemia. Faber and Gram (8) (1924) restudied the problem in a new series of ninety cases excluding those with carcinoma, pernicious anemia or tuberculosis. Anemia was defined as a hemoglobin value less than 96 per cent in men and 88 per cent in women. The percentage of anemia was 41. Schneider and Carey (9) (1928) found in fifty-one cases of achlorhydria, seven with a high color index and seven with a secondary anemia. Borgbjaerg and Lottrup (10) (1929) state that 41 per cent of one hundred and thirty-four cases had a secondary anemia, usually of a mild degree, and that several had a color index over one. Lerman, Pierce and Brogan (11) (1932) observed in normal individuals that the red cell count and hemoglobin tended to vary directly with the level of gastric acidity

Many cases have recently been reported, usually under the heading of hypochromic anemia. This disorder is described as an anemia with small erythrocytes and a low color index, occurring in middle aged women who have an anacidity

A number of writers (Witts (12), Waugh (13), McCann and Dye (14), Dameshek (15), Mills (16), Davies (17), and VanderHoof and Davis (18)) believe that this syndrome is a specific disease and that the anacidity is an important etiological factor—However, Bloomfield (19) has critically reviewed the subject and pointed out that various degrees of anemia may be associated with anacidity and that all types of gastric secretion may be associated with anemia

The fact that anacidity may precede pernicious anemia by an interval of from 3 months to 25 or more years, has been reported by at least eighteen authors. Ivy, Morgan and Farrell (20) have been able to collect a total of thirty-six reported cases. In a review of the hereditary aspects of achlorhydria in pernicious anemia, Conner (21) cites thirty-seven authors. He reports that among one hundred and fifty-four relatives of one hundred and nine patients having pernicious anemia, the percentage of anacidity was 25.9, whereas among those of a control group, the percentage was 15.2

Castle (22), (23), (24), (25) has demonstrated that normal human gastric juice can produce by interacting with beef muscle, a substance as effective as liver in promoting blood and clinical improvement in pernicious anemia. He believes that pernicious anemia is a deficiency disease

brought about by defective digestion of protein, as a result of achylia gastrica. In support of this hypothesis, he reports a patient without anemia and three with hypothromic anemia, all of whom had an anacidity to histamine, but who nevertheless had the necessary hematopoietic stimulating substance present in their gastric juice. Barnett (26) using the same method of biologic assay was unable to confirm his results on two cases without anemia known to have had an anacidity for several years.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The material consisted of twenty six males and twenty-two females with unexplained anacidity as demonstrated by the previously described histamine technique (27). The anacidity was usually an accidental finding and most of the patients did not have a primary digestive complaint. Patients with carcinoma, pernicious anemia, hyperthyroidism, syphilis, fever, bleeding, or chronic wasting diseases, such as tuberculosis, were excluded. The known duration of the anacidity to histamine varied from 1 month to 4 years and 8 months. The average for the males was 27 months, and for the females, 19 4 months. In practically all of the cases, the family history was negative or no data was obtainable. In one case it was reported that a brother had died of pernicious anemia.

The following blood examinations were made red and white cell counts, including a differential, hemoglobin (Sahli) and color index order to obtain more detailed data on the condition of the blood fifteen males and ten females were examined by workers specially trained in hematological methods. Red and white cell counts were made with standardized counting chambers and pipettes In the differential counts of the leukocytes 200 cells were enumerated Hemoglobin was determined by the oxygen capacity method of Van Slyke and Neill (28) and color indices were calculated on the basis of a correspondence of 5,000,000 corpuscles and 91 per cent hemoglobin equal to 15 6 grams of hemoglobin per 100 cc of blood Platelets and reticulocytes were counted by a method devised by Dr Harry A Wyckoff of the Stanford Medical School The average diameter of the red corpuscles was measured by the Price Iones technique (29) The frequency distribution of the corpuscular diameters was determined with an ocular micrometer, measuring 200 corpuscles in freshly dried smears, fixed and stained with Wright's stain Icterus indices and Van den Bergh tests were done in the usual manner

For a control group, a similar study was made of fifteen males and eleven females of about the same age and physical status, who had, however, free acid in their gastric secretion. These subjects were chosen seriatim from a miscellaneous group of hospital patients, and the criteria for selection were the same as for the anacidity group.

RESULTS

In Tables 1 and 2 the age, diagnosis and test meal findings 4 are recorded for the control group Patients with a wide variety of disorders and with every type of gastric secretion were used

TABLE 1

Age, diagnosis and gastric secretory findings in male controls

| Case | Age | Clinical diagnosis | Volume | Free acidity | Total acidity |
|---------|-------|------------------------------|--------|-----------------|------------------|
| | years | | СС | m Eq /L | m Eq /L |
| 1 | 31 | Indigestion, psychoneurosis | 60 | 92 | 102 |
| 2 | 58 | Abdominal pain (unexplained) | 23 | 66 | 76 |
| 3 | 42 | Pneumonoconiosis | 21 | 40 | 56 |
| 4 5 | 42 | Abdominal pain (unexplained) | 23 | 78 | 96 |
| | 48 | Duodenal ulcer | 42 | 138 | 142 |
| 6 | 57 | Gastric ulcer | 50 | 94 | 102 |
| 7 | 46 | Psychoneurosis | 50 | 65 | 66 |
| 8 | 32 | Psychoneurosis | 20 | 66 | 78 |
| 9 | 46 (| Irritable colon | 29 | 100 | 113 |
| 10 | 28 | Psychoneurosis | 27 | 124 | 130 |
| 11 | 40 | Indigestion | 17 | 112 | 120 |
| 12 | 56 | Duodenal ulcer | 35 | 84 | 99 |
| 13 | 55 | Gastric ulcer | 36 | 98 | 106 |
| 14 | 68 | Chronic hepatitis? | 2 | 25 | 35 |
| 15 | 46 | Indigestion | 35 | 50 | 58 |
| Average | 46 3 | | 31 6 | 82 | 92 |

TABLE 2

Age, diagnosis and gastric secretory findings in female controls

| Case | Age | Clinical diagnosis | Volume | Free acidity | Total acidity |
|---------|-------|-------------------------------------|--------|-----------------|------------------|
| | years | | cc | m Eq /L | m Eq /L |
| 1 | 58 | Arteriosclerosis and hypertension | 42 | 105 | 113 |
| 2 | 63 | Arteriosclerosis and hypertension | 2 | 25 | 35 |
| 3 | 36 | Duodenal ulcer | 55 | 52 | 62 |
| | 71 | Psychoneurosis | 35 | 91 | 96 |
| 4 5 | 41 | Psychoneurosis | 18 | 91 | 101 |
| 6 | 48 | Hypertension | 2 | 6 | 20 |
| 7 | 61 | Auricular fibrillation | 12 | 60 | 70 |
| 8 | 76 | Cholelithiasis, diabetes mellitus | 16 | 86 | 100 |
| 9 | 56 | Chronic cholecystitis | 52 | 74 | 87 |
| 10 | 57 | Diabetes mellitus | 32 | 23 | 43 |
| 11 | 63 | Arteriosclerosis, diabetes mellitus | 40 | 104 | 108 |
| Average | 57 2 | | 27 8 | 65 2 | 76 8 |

⁴ The highest 10 minute secretory volumes and highest free and total acidity after histamine are alone recorded

In Tables 3, 4, 5 and 6, a detailed report of the blood of the subjects who were especially studied is presented and in Table 7 the findings are summarized A number of points revealed by those tables will be discussed

Hemoglobin The hemoglobin in the male anacidity patients ranged between 65 9 and 102 with an average of 87 6 per cent, in the controls between 80 2 and 100 9 with an average of 93 3 per cent. The average grams per cent for the anacidity group was 14 9, and for the control group, 16 07

Hemoglobin in the female anacidity patients ranged between 54 and 95 with an average of 83 9 per cent, in the controls the values lay between 52 2 and 97 9, with an average of 85 8 per cent The average grams per cent for the anacidities was 14 42, and for the controls 14 68 The following cases had a marked lowering of hemoglobin male anacidity Case 8, female anacidity Case 11, and female control Case 11 Otherwise, the variations were about the same in both series

Red cell counts

There was no striking difference in the red cell counts
of the two groups

Male anacidity Cases 1 and 8, female anacidity Case
9, and female control Case 11 had counts definitely below normal

Color index The majority of the color indices were about 9 or higher Cases 2, 8 and 11 of the female anacidities, and Case 11 of the female controls, had indices below 8 More controls than anacidities had indices above 1.00

White cell count All of the counts were within the range usually ac cepted for normal people No anacidity case had a definite leukopenia nor was the differential count unusual in any of the cases

Platelets These varied considerably in both series, but were considered to be within the range of normal

Reticulocytes Cases 4, 5 and 11 of the female anacidity group, and Case 6 of the male control group, showed a slight reticulocytosis

Icterus undex and van den Bergh A number of individuals among both the "anacidities" and the controls had either an icterus index or Van den Bergh slightly above normal

Price-Jones curve There was no significant difference as regards the variation in size of red cells between the anacidities or controls

Smear Reports such as normal smear, slight anisocytosis, moderate polychromasia, etcetera, were not uncommon in either series. The impression of the worker studying the smear did not always correspond to the type of Price-Jones curve recorded, but usually there was a close agreement between the two. Case 11 of the female anacidities and Case 11 of the female controls had definitely abnormal smears.

TABLE 3
Blood studies in male control cases

| | Smear | | Slock | Normal Misocytosis | Normal | Shaht and and | Normal | Normal | Shaht angoontong | Mormal | Normal | Modified | Moderate polychromasia | Slight microcytosis | Normal | Normal | Moderate anisocotosis | Slight anisocytosis | | |
|------------------|---------|----------|---------------|--------------------|---------|---------------|--------|---------|------------------|---------|--------|----------|------------------------|---------------------|--------|----------|-----------------------|---------------------|---------|---|
| | Aver | È | crons 6 75 | | 7 77 | - 1 | 7 73 | . ~ | ٠. | 7 38 | 7 20 | - 1 | - I | <u>`</u> 1 | 1.1.1 | 7 19 | 908 | ~ | 7.48 | • |
| Jones | Apex | 111 | 7 50 | 1 | - 1- | - 1 | . 1 | . 1 | ٧. | 1 | • 1 | . 1 | - 4 | ٥ | o. | 0 | | 7 | 7 46 | |
| Price Jones | Upper | 11112 | 8 75 | 10.00 | 10 00 | 0.37 | 937 | 937 | 8 75 | 8 75 | 0.37 | 0 37 | 0 0 | 0 0 | 20 01 | 937 | 937 | 937 | 9 33 | |
| | Lower | 1111- | 2 67 | 200 | | 5 62 | 6 25 | 5 62 | | | 5 62 | 5 62 | 2 6 | 2 0 | 3 6 | 3 | 200 | 5 62 | 5 58 | |
| I. | terus | 1 | 0 0 | 200 | 5 K | 7.0 | 150 | | 75 | | 7.6 | | | 2 0 | 9 0 |) X | | 97 | 8 5 | |
| den gh | Indi- | | | | 0.5 | | | | 04 | 03 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 8 | 000 | 4 6 |) : - | | | 0.8 | _ |
| Van den Bergh | Direct | | ì | ì | 1 | 1 | ì | | ì | i | I | İ | ١ | ì | i | l | i | 1 | ı | |
| Deticii | locytes | per | 2.0 | 00 | 00 | 17 | | 2 8 | 00 | 0 1 | 0 1 | 00 | 0.0 | 00 | | > + | - (| 0.2 | 0 54 | |
| plate | lets | 107 | 359 | 510 | 340 | 368 | 528 | 487 | 461 | 275 | 317 | 297 | 273 | 502 | 443 | 124 | #CT | 149 | 363 | 1 |
| - | Monos | per | าก | 4 | 3 | 4 | w, | NO : | 2 | ري د | 4 | | 7 | 3 | ٠., |) W | ٠ · | 0 | ß | |
| Differential | Lymphs | per | 38 | 24 | 40 | 38 | 38 | 90 | 77 | 22 | 46 | 35 | 45 | 36 | 27 | 30 |) * | 41 | 37 | |
| | Polys | to to to | 26 | 20 | 54 | 57 | 59 | , 0, | 20 | 30 | 49 | 52 | 49 | 26 | 21 | , v | 1 2 | 3 | 26 | |
| White | cells | 100 | 134 | 9 5 | 7.7 | 109 | 134 | o co | 2, 4 | 4 ; | 10 7 | 8 | 6 1 | 12.7 | 66 | 8.2 | 0 | 70 | 9 5 | |
| Color | ındex | | 0 93 | 66 0 | 66 0 | 1 10 | 0 98 | 26.0 | 000 | 0 20 | | 3 | 0 91 | 0 97 | 0 93 | 1 07 | 9 | 3 | 0 98 | |
| Red | | 100 | 5 13 | 4 92 | 2 00 | 4 14 | 35 | # 7# | 2 2 | 3, | 40 7 | 5 C | 2 05 | 4 75 | 5 47 | 4 45 | 200 | 3 | 4 79 | |
| Hemo- | globin | per | 165 | 168 | 17.1 | 15. | 7 0 7 | 1100 | 7 7 7 | 2 4 7 | 0 5 | 7 11 | 15. | 15 8 | 173 | 161 | 17.5 | } | 161 | |
| Case* | 7 | | (| 77 9 | | 41 1 | י מ | 2 1 | - α | 3 0 | y | 2: | 11, | 17 | 13 | 14 | 15 | | Average | |

* Numbers correspond to those of Table 1

TABLE 4
Blood studies in female control cases

| | Sinear | mi | 36 Normal | _ | 673 Definite microcatosis | _ | _ | ·- | _ | | | | 6 51 Extensive anisocytosis | 39 | |
|------------------|--------------------|----------------------|-----------|------|---------------------------|------|------|--------|--------|------|--------|------|-----------------------------|--------------|---|
| : | Apex Ayer | mi crons cr | 7 50 7 | | | | | 6 87 7 | | | 2 12 7 | | 6 25 6 | 7 44 7 | - |
| Price Jones | · | | 37 7 | 37 7 | | 37.8 | 37 7 | 37.6 | 25.8 | 7 | | | | 1 80 | - |
| Price | Upper | mi crons | 93 | 93 | 93 | 93 | | 93 | 11 2 | 0 37 | 100 | 200 | 8 73 | 9 48 | |
| | Lower | me | 5 62 | 5 62 | 4 35 | 6 25 | 6.25 | 5 62 | 5 62 | 2 63 | 20 | 5 | 200 | 5 56 | |
| 15 | index | | 99 | 80 | 89 | 9.5 | 7.0 | | 57 | 7.8 | 69 | 25 | 20 | 6.3 | |
| gh | Indi | | 0.5 | 03 | 0.8 | 10 | 0.5 | 10 | 03 | 0.2 | 0.5 | 3 | 03 | 0.5 | |
| Van den Bergh | Direct | | ł | ı | ł | 1 | ł | + | . 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | ı | , | |
| Reticu | locytes | per | 00 | 0 1 | | 10 | 0.8 | 14 | 0.1 | 0 0 | 60 | 10 | 0.4 | 0.5 | 1 |
| Plate | lets | 101 | 345 | 351 | | 431 | 346 | 335 | 327 | 260 | 242 | 236 | 379 | 296 | |
| | Мовов | per | 6 | 4 | 'n | ~ | 3 | 7 | 7 | 9 | 13 | | · m | 20 | |
| Differentlal | Polys Lymphs Mones | per cent | 24 | 24 | 32 | 56 | 32 | 22 | 53 | 32 | 13 | 40 | 33 | 28 | |
| | Polys | ten g | 89 | 2 | 8 | 19 | 62 | 2 | 22 | 20 | 8 | 57 | 19 | છ | |
| White | sells | ş | 86 | 12 6 | 9.2 | 66 | 91 | 113 | 92 | 140 | 80 | 7.5 | 8 2 | 66 | |
| Color | Index | | 0 91 | 0 88 | 0.87 | 1 06 | 1 80 | 1 06 | 1 09 | 060 | 1 00 | 1 15 | 0.7 | 0 98 | |
| Red | sells | 100 | 4 47 | 4 37 | 2 09 | 4 40 | 4 75 | 4 20 | 4 04 | 4 65 | 4 49 | 4 22 | 3 68 | 4 40 | |
| Непо | globin | grams per cent | 138 | 126 | 153 | 161 | 163 | 13.1 | 151 | 157 | 158 | 168 | 8 9 | 14.7 | |
| 1 | | | | 7 | n | 4" | 'n | 0 | ~ ~ | ∞ | 6 | 20 | = | Average 14 7 | |

* Numbers correspond to those of Table 2

TABLE 5
Age, diagnosis and blood studies in male anacidity cases

| ALCO. | | Normal Normal | Slight anisocytosis Normal | Norma | Slight macrocytosis | Slight polkilocytosis | Slight anisocytosis Slight anisocytosis | Wight anisomytosis | Definite anisocytosis | Normal | Slight anisocytosis | Sheht ansocytosis | Normal | |
|-----------------|------------------------------|--|-------------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| Aver | mi- | | | | | | | 32 | 28 | 55 | \$ | 54 | 22 | 740 |
| Apex | mi | 7 50 | 6 87 | 6.87 | 8 12 | 6 87 | 8 12 8 4 | | | | | | | 14. |
| Upper | mt- crons | 875 937 | 0 23 | 10 00 | 10 00 | 875 | 10 00 | 9.37 | 937 | 9 37 | 9 37 | 1089 | 8 75 | 948 |
| | mt | 622 | 88 82 82 | 299 | 2 00 | 8 | 5 62 | 6 25 | 6 62 | 299 | 5 62 | 200 | 2 00 | 6 49 |
| · | | 27, | 200 | 8.2 | 110 | 61 | 2 44 5 00 | | | | | | | 147 |
| Indi | | 86 | 200 | 80 | 03 | 270 | 2 C) | 10 | 0.5 | 02 | 80 | 020 | 90 | 0.5 |
| e p | j | 1 | 11 | 1 | 1 | ! | 11 | ı | ı | 1 | 1 | i | ı |], |
| of tea Steam | # # B | 800 | 0.40 | 00 | 90 | 7 . | 00 | 90 | 80 | 63 | 00 | 90 | 0.2 | 0.5 |
| | 8 | 221 | 348 | <u>ج</u> | 387 | 573 | 151 | 206 | 400 | 345 | 338 | 410 | 242 | 188 |
| | bea cent | 625 | ٥~ | ∞ | <u>۔</u> | ., | | 9 | 2 | ~ ~ | _ | × | 10 | 2 |
| | per | 1288 | 32 | 52 | 27 | - N | 38 | 18 | 22 | 3 | 88 | 9 | 39 | 75 |
| Polys | per cent | 8258 | 325 | 25 | 38 | 2:5 | 3:2 | 73 | 3 | 6 | 4.5 | 2 | 22 | 8 |
| cells | 83 | 130 | 000 | 7.7 | 0,0 | 000 | 00 | 9.1 | 9 | 200 | 3 | 9 | 8.6 | 9.6 |
| | | 1000 | 880 | 2 E | 36 | 38 | 0 95 | 0 03 | 38 | 3 | 36 | 88 | 3 | 0 97 |
| | 108 | 64 4 48 88 | 183 | 200 | 5.74 | 35 | 4 12 | 4 42 | 491 | 40.0 | 55.4 | 31 | 2 20 20 | 4 55 |
| ndolg | 5 8 8 | 255 | 223 | 2: | 77 | == | 123 | 14 | 17.5 | - 22 | 25. | 100 | 3 | 149 |
| Ometra megrapa | | Arterlosolerosis, myocarditis Indigestron Adenoma of thereold | Irritable colon acne rosacea | Tourseanon Training | Chronia refusition | Arteriosclerogia | Arterloscierosis hypertension | the transportation of the problem of the the transportation of the | Cerebral arterioscierosis | Aming models | Arterioraloguesia misocaditio | Chronic apprehension | Carome consultation | Average |
| 4 | years | | | | | | | | | | | | | Av |
| | | ~ e3 e3 | -4 ⊔ | 9 = | 2.0 | . oc | ر ده د | : : | 15 | 1 2 | 3 7 | 1 = | 3 | Į |
| | Indi- index Lower Upper Apex | globin cells index through the cells from the cells | 1 | Polys Lymphs Monos Lymphs Monos Polys Monos Monos Polys Monos Monos Polys Monos M | Perus Peru | Polys Lymphs Monos Lymphs Monos Lymphs Lymphs Monos Lymphs Lymph | Polys Lymphs Monos Per Per | Polys Lymphs Monos Lymphs Monos Lymphs Lymphs Monos Lymphs Lymph | Polys Lymphs Monos Polys Monos Polys Monos Polys Monos Polys Monos M | Polys Lymphs Monos Per Per | Polys Lymphs Monos Lymphs Monos Lymphs Lymphs Monos Lymphs Lymph | Polys Lymphs Monos Lymphs Monos Lymphs Lymphs Monos Lymphs Lymph | Particular Languages Globin cells Rolys Lymphs, Monos, Los Los | Participation Participatio |

TABLE O
Age diagnosis and blood studies in female anacidity cases

| 1 | | j | | | | | | | | | | | ſ |
|----------------------|---------------------|----------------------|---------------------|-------------|----------------|---------------------|---------------------|-------------|-------------|-----------------------|------------------------------|----------------------|---------|
| Sinen | | | Slight microcytosis | Normal | Normal | Slight anisocytoris | Slight anisocytosis | Normal | Normal | Moderate anisocytosis | Normal | Marked anisocytosis | |
| | Aver- | mi crons | 6.80 | 7,33 | 6.98 | 741 | 7.38 | 28 | 7.72 | 8 | 7.5 | 3 | 7.26 |
| lones | Aper | m; crons | 6.87 | 6.87 | 6.87 | 8 87 | 7.50 | 2.50 | 7.50 | 6.87 | 32 | 270 | 7.19 |
| Price-Jones | Upper | ms Grons | 8 75 | 10 62 | 8 75 | 88 | 9 37 | 9.37 | 1000 | 9.37 | 108 | 1000 | 9 62 |
| | Lower | m: crons | 5 62 | 3.0 | 8 | 202 | 2 63 | 5.62 | 625 | 5 63 | 8 | 375 | 537 |
| آر پوتوغ | Index | | 2.0 | 8.9 | 88 | 9 | 2 | 115 | 20 | 7,8 | 0 0 | 00 | 2 |
| Van den Bergh | Indi | | 90 | 0.5 | 80 | 0.1 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 0.2 | 0.5 | 2 | 98 |
| Van Ber | ig in | | 1 | ı | ı | ı | 1 | 1 | ı | ı | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Plate ulo lets cytes | | EZ | 970 | 5 | 91 | 9 | 34 | 2 | - | 7 | 7 | 93 | 1.8 |
| | | 101 | 88 | 345 | :3 | 3 | 353 | \$ | 558 | 130 | 429 | 216 | gg |
| - | Мопов. | 27.5 | 8 | | * | 9 | 9 | ٠ • | 4 | - | t- | 2 | 10 |
| Differential | Polya Lympba Monos. | 2.5 | 23 | 32 | 41 | 55 | 27 | 12 | 47 | 36 | 24 | 10 | e . |
| | Polya | 8.3 | 7.7 | 8 | ÷ | 8 | 3 | 2 | Ç | 20 | 25 | 25 | 8 |
| White | cells | 53, | 10 6 | 2.0 | 80 | 9 | 121 | 3 | 86 | e | 8 | 96 | 2 |
| Color | inder | | 180 | 22 | 60 | 60 | 0.93 | 80 | 0.87 | 0.16 | 9 | 50 | 987 |
| Red | cella | 108 | 199 | 627 | 4.70 | 4 61 | 4 79 | 8 | 4.28 | 679 | 3,97 | £3 | 4 93 |
| Hemo- | globia | grams per cent | 183 | 18.0 | 146 | ? | 151 | 15.5 | 12 | 15.5 | ¥ | 93 | 14.4 |
| Clinical diagnosts | | | Irritable colon | No disease | Prychoneurosia | Iritable colon | Obedty hypertension | Layopounous | Indigestion | No discuse | Abdominal pain (unexplained) | Periarteritis nodosa | Average |
| Case | | years | 19 | 8 | 4 | 2 | 24 | 82 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 9 | ¥ |
| 3 | | | - | C 49 | 80 | • | | φ, | - | 00 | • | = | |

TABLE 7 Summary of average findings in anacidity and control cases

| | | | | | | | - | | | | | | | | | |
|------------------------------------|----------------------|-------|-------|----------------|--------------|--------------|------------|------------|--------------|--------|---------------|---------|-----------|-------------|---------|---------|
| | Hemo- | Red | | White | I | Differential | 7 | Ē | í | Van de | Van den Bergh | | | Price Jones | Jones | |
| | mqojs | cells | ındex | blood cells | Polys | Lymphs | Молоѕ | lets | locy tes | Direct | Indurect | Icterus | Lower | Upper | Apex | Aver- |
| | grams per cent | 8 | | 101 | per cent | per cent | per | 101 | per | | | | microns | microns | microns | microns |
| Male anacidities | 14 90 | 4 55 | 0 97 | 96 | 65 4 | 24.3 | 6.5 | 361 | 0 46 | ١ | 0 45 | 7.4 | 5 40 | 0 40 | 7 | 40 |
| Male controls Female appointmen | 16 07 | 4 79 | 0 98 | 5.5 | 55.5 | 369 | 4.5 | 363 | 0.54 | ı | 0.78 | 8 5 | 5 58 | 9 33 | 7 46 | 7 48 |
| Female controls | 14 68 4 | 4 40 | 0 88 | 66 | 62 6 62 6 | 29 7 28 4 | 5 4 1 1 | 319 296 | 1 76 0 51 | 1 1 | 0.59 | 73 | 5 37 5 56 | 9 62 | 7 19 | 7 26 |
| | | | | - | - | | _ | | | | | | : | ? | • | `` |

DISCUSSION

A study of the tables shows that many people with anacidity have subnormal blood counts when comparison is made with standard "nor mal ' or "ideal" values The point at issue, however, is not this indis putable fact but whether the anacidity bears a causal relationship to the hematological deviations To settle this point controls are clearly neces sary and when a group of people of similar age, sex and condition, but with normal gastric secretion is studied by the same methods no significant difference appears This matter of controls has not, we believe, been properly emphasized in previous work, hence the rather generally accepted idea that anacidity per se leads to deficiency of the blood If, for example, Case 11 of the female control series had had an anacidity she would doubtless have been considered a typical case of "achlorhydric hypochromic anemia" by most writers A further complication comes from the fact that many of the achlorhydric women with hypochromic anemia reported in the literature had lost blood over long periods of time from uterine hemorrhage, in the present study all patients thought to have abnormal bleeding were eliminated

Whether or not people with anacidity as a class are specially liable to develop pernicious anemia is a debatable question. Certainly there are a few isolated instances on record in which the anacidity has preceded the anemia by many years. However, some of the individuals in this series have had an anacidity to histamine for over four years and others are known to have had an anacidity to other test meals for a longer period of time without any impairment of health. In the male anacidity series, Case 1 was told that he had no acid in his stomach in 1926, Case 8 was told the same thing in 1908, and Case 9 had an anacidity to the fractional gruel meal in 1925.

Although anacidity is practically always part of the disease picture of Addisonian anemia, yet there are many gaps in our knowledge of the role of this defect in the production of the disease. Even though the two are intimately related, it is difficult to explain why the absence of free hydrochloric acid is so common in apparently healthy people.

CONCLUSIONS

The blood picture in twenty five cases of unexplained gastric anacidity was compared with that of an otherwise similar group of people except that they had an apparently normal gastric secretion. No significant difference was noted between the two groups. No evidence is therefore forthcoming that anacidity in itself leads to anemia.

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STUDIES ON THE ACTION OF DIURETICS II THE EF-FECT OF SALYRGAN UPON THE WATER CONTENT OF THE PLASMA AS MEASURED BY THE REFRACTIVE INDEX

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(Received for publication April 5, 1933)

There are conflicting reports in the literature concerning the effect of the mercurial diuretics upon the water content of the plasma Saxl and Heilig (1) Bohn (2 3) and Crawford and McIntosh (4) have reported that the concentration of protein in the plasma falls before the onset of novasurol diuresis Muhling (5), Nonnenbruch (6) and Bleyer (7), on the other hand, found no such evidence of plasma dilution

In a previous publication (8) evidence was presented that salyrgan diuresis is the result of decreased reabsorption of water in the renal tubules. It was suggested that this decrease in reabsorption is produced by a depressant action of the drug on the tubular epithelium. The occurrence of hydremia preceding the onset of diuresis would be inconsistent with this hypothesis and would point to a primary extrarenal action, occurring alone or in conjunction with a direct action on the kidney. Carefully controlled studies of the effect of salyrgan upon the refractive index of the plasma have therefore, been carried out. For purposes of comparison similar studies have been made with intravenously administered physiological saline solution.

PROCEDURE

The experiments were performed upon unanesthetized female dogs who had gone without food for twelve hours or more — In Control Experiments 1 to 7 inclusive, and in the first seven salyrgan experiments, the animals were permitted to dfink water as desired until two hours before the beginning of the experiment — In all other experiments the dogs were allowed no water for five hours preceding the period of observation — During the experiment the dog was tied down on a table — After a period of training the animals would remain in this position for two to three hours without struggling — Urine was collected from the bladder directly into graduated cylinders by an inlying catheter — Blood samples were drawn from the external jugular vein without stasis — Heparin (0.01 cc of a 4 per cent solution to each cc of blood) was used to prevent clotting — In Control Experiments 1, 2, 3, and 4 and in salyrgan Experiments 1 and 2 the blood

samples were from 5 5 to 60 cc each. In all other experiments about 1 5 cc of blood were drawn at each venepuncture. Immediately after withdrawal the blood specimens were centrifuged for two minutes at 1800 r.p.m., and the refractive index determined on a drop of the plasma in an Abbe refractometer at room temperature. The temperature seldom varied as much as one degree centigrade during the course of an experiment. A rise of one degree in the temperature was found to produce a fall of approximately 0 0001 in the refractive index of the plasma. Changes in temperature of less than one degree were therefore ignored. On the few occasions when greater variations than this occurred the refractive index was corrected correspondingly.

RESULTS

(a) Control experiments

The refractive index of the plasma was found to fluctuate considerably under controlled conditions (Figs 1A and 1B) Of particular interest in connection with this investigation are the decreases which occurred in Control Experiments 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7. In these five experiments the index

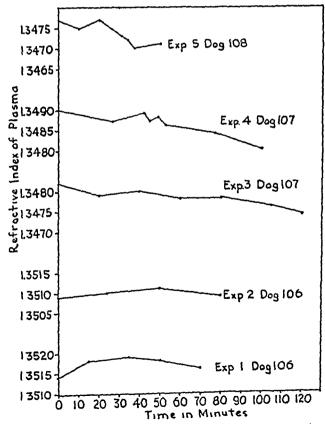


FIG 1A CONTROL EXPERIMENTS 1, 2, 3, 4 AND 5

In Experiments 1, 2, 3, 5 and 10 the index did not vary more than plus or minus 0 0002 from the control period level. In Experiment 9 a temporary increase of 0 0005 occurred after the administration of salyrgan. The index then returned to and remained at approximately the control period level until diuresis began. In another instance (Experiment 8) a more persistent rise in the index occurred. In the remaining three experiments

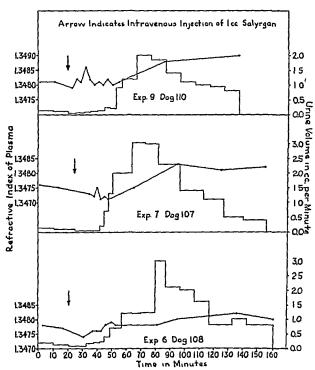


FIG 2B SALYRGAN EXPERIMENTS 6 7 AND 9

(4 6 and 7) the index fell 0 0006 0 0003 and 0 0004 (0 3 0 15 and 0 2 gram per cent of protein) respectively. Decreases of equal magnitude and occurring within a similar period of time were observed in the control experiments without any subsequent increase in urine volume.

In all ten salyrgan experiments the refractive index of the plasma increased gradually during the early part of diuresis. When the index had

a considerable rise occurred. These results may, however, be merely a matter of chance. A rise in the index occurred in Experiment 1, and the index remained fairly constant in Experiment 2, although water was withheld for only two hours in both of these experiments. In the control period of salyrgan Experiment 10, on the other hand, a precipitous drop in the index occurred even though the dog had received no water for five hours

The urine output in all of the control experiments either remained at about the same level or slowly declined during the period of observation. The spontaneous decreases in the index of refraction of the plasma were never followed by diuresis.

(b) Salyrgan experiments

No consistent change in the refractive index of the plasma was observed before the onset of salyrgan diuresis (see Figures 2A, 2B, and 2C)

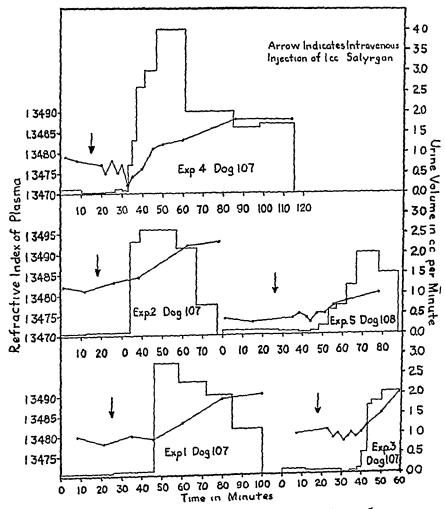


Fig 2A Salyrgan Experiments 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5

a considerable rise occurred These results may, however, be merely a matter of chance A rise in the index occurred in Experiment 1, and the index remained fairly constant in Experiment 2, although water was withheld for only two hours in both of these experiments. In the control period of salyrgan Experiment 10, on the other hand, a precipitous drop in the index occurred even though the dog had received no water for five hours

The urine output in all of the control experiments either remained at about the same level or slowly declined during the period of observation. The spontaneous decreases in the index of refraction of the plasma were never followed by diuresis.

(b) Salyrgan experiments

No consistent change in the refractive index of the plasma was observed before the onset of salyrgan diuresis (see Figures 2A, 2B, and 2C)

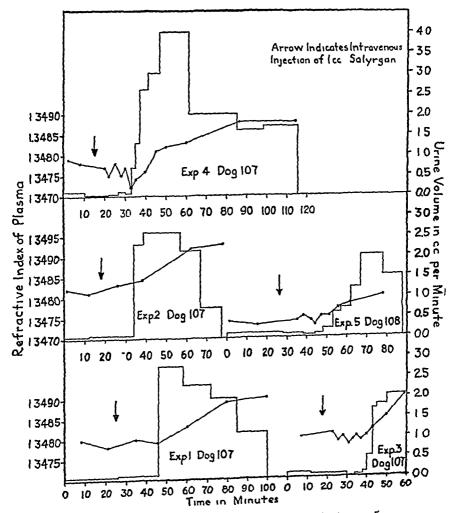


FIG 2A SALYRGAN EXPERIMENTS 1, 2, 3, 4 AND 5

In Experiments 1, 2, 3 5 and 10 the index did not vary more than plus or minus 0 0002 from the control period level. In Experiment 9 a temporary increase of 0 0005 occurred after the administration of salyrgan. The index then returned to and remained at approximately the control period level until diuresis began. In another instance (Experiment 8) a more persistent rise in the index occurred. In the remaining three experiments

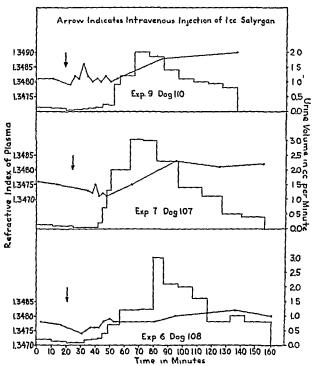


Fig 2B Salyrgan Experiments 6 7 and 9

(4, 6 and 7) the index fell 0 0006 0 0003 and 0 0004 (0 3, 0 15 and 0 2 gram per cent of protein) respectively Decreases of equal magnitude and occurring within a similar period of time were observed in the control experiments without any subsequent increase in urine volume

In all ten salyrgan experiments the refractive index of the plasma increased gradually during the early part of diuresis. When the index had

risen approximately 0 0010 (representing an increase of 0 5 gram per cent in the protein concentration) no further increase occurred

(c) Saline experiments

Varying amounts of 0.9 per cent saline solution were injected intravenously at the rate of 10 cc per minute (see Figures 3A and 3B) In

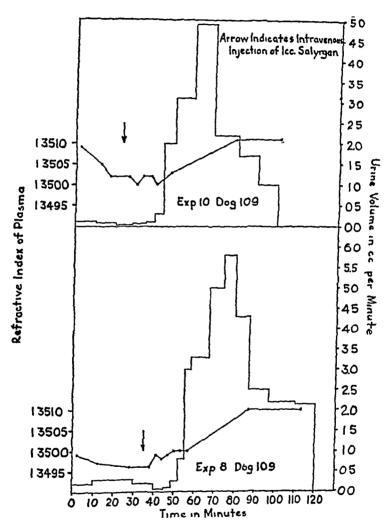


FIG 2C SALYRGAN EXPERIMENTS 8 AND 10

Experiments 1 and 2 the index of refraction of the plasma fell 0 0006 and 0 0009, respectively, without any increase in the urine volume. In the other four experiments, in which the index was lowered more than 0 0010, diuresis occurred. There was no correlation, however, between the magnitude of the urine volume and the degree to which the index of refraction

was decreased Only slight diuresis occurred in Experiments 3 and 5 in which the index fell 0 0015 and 0 0023 respectively, whereas the urine output was augmented considerably in Experiments 4 and 6, in which the index dropped 0 0017 and 0 0013, respectively below the control period level

COMMENT

Bohn has suggested that the contradictory reports in the literature concerning the effect of novasurol upon the water content of the plasma are

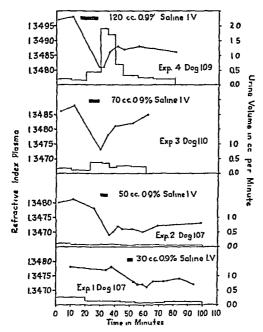


FIG 3A SALINE EXPERIMENTS 1, 2 3 AND 4

due to the fact that blood samples were taken at different times and that the temporary hydremia was missed by some investigators. In the present experiments samples of blood were taken at approximately three minute intervals during the period between the administration of salyrgan and the onset of diuresis. There is no evidence in these experiments that diuresis is preceded by a mobilization of fluid from the tissue spaces. The refractive index of the plasma showed no consistent change before the onset

of diuresis and such decreases as were observed fell within the limits of variation noted in the control experiments

The argument has been advanced that the kidneys respond so promptly with diuresis when a shift of fluid from the tissues to the blood occurs that it is impossible to demonstrate appreciable dilution of the plasma. The results of the saline experiments do not support such a hypothesis. They demonstrate that the refractive index of the plasma may be lowered markedly by the injection of physiological saline solution without producing sig-

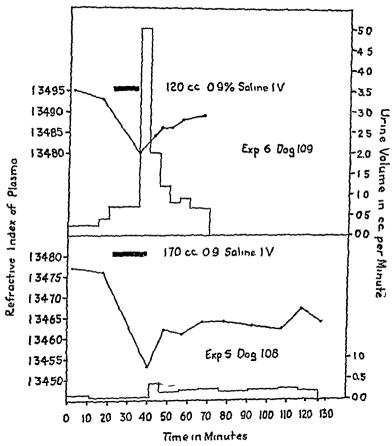


FIG 3B SALINE EXPERIMENTS 5 AND 6

mificant diuresis This is additional evidence that the moderate decrease in the refractive index of the plasma observed in some of the salyrgan experiments played no significant rôle in the production of diuresis

The refractive index of the plasma rises gradually during the early part of salyrgan diuresis. When the index has increased approximately 0 0010 no further concentration of the plasma occurs. Apparently sufficient fluid flows into the plasma from the tissue spaces to balance the loss by way of the kidneys.

The amount of water lost from the plasma may be calculated roughly from the change in the refractive index. Salyrgan Experiment 3 in which a comparatively moderate diuresis occurred may be used as an example Dog 110 weighed 14 kilograms. If we estimate the plasma volume as 600 cc and assume a protein concentration of 6 grams per 100 cc, then an increase of 0.5 gram per cent in the protein concentration (a rise of 0.0010 in the refractive index) would mean a loss of approximately 50 cc of water from the plasma. The total amount of urine passed from the onset of diuresis to the end of the experiment was 105 cc. In Experiment 8 the urine exceeded the calculated loss of water from the plasma by approximately 150 cc.

The excess of urine volume over the calculated loss of fluid from the plasma points to an inflow of tissue fluids into the blood. The absence of hydremia preceding the onset of diuresis the gradual rise of the refractive index of the plasma during the early part of diuresis and the maintenance of a level after the index has risen approximately 0 0010 indicate that this inflow is secondary to the loss of fluid from the blood by way of the kidneys. This secondary withdrawal of fluid from the tissue spaces is probably the mechanism by which the mercurial diuretics remove accumulations of fluid in the subcutaneous tissues and in the peritoneal cavity

SUMMARY

The effect of salyrgan upon the water content of the plasma has been studied by means of the refractometer

There is no evidence in these experiments that salyrgan diuresis is preceded by a mobilization of fluid from the tissue spaces

The results point strongly to a primary direct action of salyrgan on the hidney with a secondary inflow of fluid from the tissue spaces to prevent excessive dehydration of the plasma

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STUDIES IN CONGESTIVE HEART FAILURE XXIIII A CRITICAL STUDY OF METHODS FOR DETERMINING THE CARDIAC OUTPUT IN PATIENTS WITH CARDIAC DISEASE

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(Received for publication April 26 1933)

The cardiac output of normal persons may be determined by methods the accuracy of which has been adequately demonstrated (4). In patients with congestive heart failure on the other hand so many factors intervene that the validity of a method applicable to normal individuals may no longer be assumed. Hitherto comparatively little work has been done in testing the applicability of various cardiac output methods to patients with heart disease although data obtained by such methods may be subject to large errors.

In the present investigation we have examined the accuracy of three methods of measuring the cardiac output and ascertained the extent of their applicability to subjects with congestive heart failure. The Burwell and Robinson procedure (3), the venous plateau method (7), and the acetylene procedure (4) seemed to us to offer the greatest probability of proving applicable in heart disease The method of Burwell and Robinson depends upon the equilibration of the patient's blood with a gas mixture obtained by repeated rebreathings From a comparison of the oxygen content of this blood with that of a sample of arterial blood the arteriovenous differ-This method assumes that the same physicochemical equi librium occurs between the blood and the gas obtained by the rebreathing procedure when shaken in a tonometer as occurs across the pulmonary epithelium during rebreathing. Obviously this physiological equilibration occurs only slowly and may therefore lead to illusory constancy in any case in which pulmonary conditions inhibit (without totally preventing) normal oxygenation of the blood in the lungs Since such conditions are probably of frequent occurrence in cardiac disease, Burwell and Robinson, realizing these possible sources of error, limited their observations to individuals with normal lungs

In order to avoid the source of error in the Burwell Robinson procedure Harrison, Friedman and Clark (7) modified it. Their venous plateau method depends upon the use of the lungs for the final equilibration

instead of a glass tonometer as in the Burwell and Robinson procedure. The patient rebreathes the final gas mixture, and during the rebreathing, samples of "mixed venous" blood are drawn from the femoral artery

The acetylene procedure (4) is founded upon a principle entirely different from that of these two methods. It depends essentially upon measuring the rate of absorption of a foreign gas across the pulmonary epithelium.

Experiments demonstrating the sources of error occurring in these methods will be presented and the criteria which must be applied for demonstrating their validity in a given patient will be defined. When these criteria are satisfied accurate results may be obtained

The attainment of homogeneous mixture in a lung-bag system in patients with congestive heart failure

The measurement of the cardiac output in patients with congestive heart failure is rendered difficult in all methods based upon equilibration of gas mixtures accross the lungs by essentially two factors. The first of these is the change in the mechanical conditions in the lungs which makes it difficult to obtain samples of the gas mixtures which are in true equilibrium with the blood. A second factor is the involvement of the alveoli in a pathological process which prevents the establishment of true equilibrium (in a physicochemical sense) between the alveolar gases and the blood.

A prominent feature in patients with heart disease is the marked pulmonary alteration which mechanically interferes with any rebreathing procedure. The exact nature of the pulmonary lesions need not be described here, suffice it to say that loss of elasticity of the alveolar walls, congestion of the lungs, swelling of the pulmonary epithelium, the presence of edema in the alveola and bronchioles, and, in some cases, emphysema, combine to increase the residual air and render difficult the attainment of a homogeneous mixture when a patient rebreathes a given gas mixture from a bag. If homogeneity of the contents of the lungs and of the bag is not attained it is obviously impossible to obtain a sample of gas from the bag which is representative of that in equilibrium with the blood

The Burwell-Robinson, venous plateau and acetylene procedures are all dependent upon attaining complete mixture in a lung-bag system. It was, therefore, necessary to determine the length of time required for obtaining a homogeneous mixture in this system. For this purpose the method of Lundsgaard and Schierbeck (9), used previously by Grollman and Marshall (5), was utilized. The subject rebreathes a mixture of hydrogen in air under the same conditions as in the desired experimental procedure. By analyzing samples of the gas withdrawn simultaneously from the bag and from the mouth one can obtain an indication of the degree of homogeneity in the lung-bag system. The time required is

about fifteen seconds in normal individuals but is longer in subjects with abnormal lungs

There exists no definite and universally accepted nomenclature for describing succinctly the clinical condition of a given patient. The term "decompensation," for example may have a different denotation for different observers. We have included therefore in Table 1 data bearing on the clinical condition of the patients whom we have studied. Comparison of a result in the experimental tables with the clinical description of Table 1 will allow the reader to judge roughly concerning the conclusions to be drawn from the present study.

In Table 2 are given the results obtained in a series of patients showing various degrees of congestive heart failure as defined by the clinical data of Table 1. The patients rebreathed a mixture of hydrogen in air as is customary in measuring the cardiac output by the acetylene method. The volume of gas in the bag (Table 2, column 2) was that which could be inspired without difficulty by the patient (4). The number of respirations and the time after beginning rebreathing when collection of the samples was made are given in columns 3 and 4.

Since the respiratory quotient is less than unity during rebreathing (due to accumulation of carbon dioxide in the bag which prevents the usual loss of carbon dioxide from the mixed venous blood in the lungs) the hydrogen content of the sample obtained from the mouth is greater than that expired into the bag when homogeneous mixture has been attained in the lung bag system. A positive difference in the fifth column of Table 2 indicates therefore that mixture has occurred under the conditions of the rebreathing

The data in Table 2 demonstrate the greater length of time necessary in patients with heart failure than in normal individuals for attaining homogeneous mixture between the air in the lungs and a gaseous mixture contained in a bag. Whereas normal subjects seldom require more than fifteen seconds, the subjects in Table 2 required eighteen seconds in two cases, twenty seconds in three cases, and twenty-five seconds or more in the remaining three. The application of these results to the problem of measuring the cardiac output in such cases will be given later.

Equilibration of gases across the pulmonary epithelium

The second possible source of error, which must be considered before applying to persons with congestive heart failure a method applicable to normal subjects, is the possible alteration of diffusion through the pulmonary epithelium due to pathological changes. If a change occurs in the lung which diminishes the rate at which a gas can pass into the blood from the alveolar spaces, physicochemical equilibrium may not occur and the method based upon the assumption that it does becomes inapplicable Although much has been said concerning this possibility in studying cases

TABLE 1
Clinical data on subjects with organic cardiac disease studied in this investigation

| | | Therapy being administered | | | None | Digitalis | Diuretics | Digitalis Digitalis | Diuretics Digitalis | Digitalis | Diuretics Digitalis Digitalis | Digitalis Digitalis |
|--|---------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------|--------|--------------------------|---|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------|--|---|
| | | Râles in lungs | | | | 7 | - | #+ | 0 | +1 | - 0 + | - ++ |
| | l o | Degree of cardiac | enlarge ment | | 1 | - + - + | - | + + + + | + | ++++ | +++++++ | ++ |
| negarious. | Degree of cardiac failure | Degree of edema | | | _ | · + | _ | o + + | 0 | # | +1 + | +0 |
| 2000 | of card | Vital | 1ty | luters | 3.4 | 21 | | 2 2 2 | 29 | 2 8 | 3 2 4 4 | 31 |
| | Degree | e of | At rest | | 0 | + | | #+ + | 0 | +1 | 0+ | 110 |
| aroung around state are provided the state of the state o | | Degree of dyspnea | On exertion | | + | + | | +++++ | + | ++ | ++ | ++ |
| | | Type of cardiac disease | | | Arteriosclerosis, hyper- | tension Mitral stenosis and insuffi- | Symbilitic auticular fibrillation | Syphilitic aortic insufficiency +++ | Mitral stenosis, auricular | Syphiliticaortic insufficiency | Syphiliticaortic insufficiency Hypertension, arteriosclero- | sis, emphysema Arteriosclerosis, emphysema Syphiliticaortic insufficiency |
| , | Surface area | | | square | 1 82 | 1 62 | 1 62 | 1 62 | 1 70 | 1 66 | 1 69 1 70 | 151 |
| | | Edema free weight | | pounds | 158 | 121 | 127 | 135 | 132 | 132 | 135 132 | 105 |
| | Height | | | ınches | 67.5 | 66 5 | | 29 | 68 2 | 2 99 | 67 2 68 5 | 0 99 |
| | | Race | | | Negro | White | Negro | Negro | Negro | Negro | Negro White | White White |
| | | Sex | | | × | ÌΞί | × | × | Z | × | ZZ | FF |
| | | Age | | years | 29 | 28 | 44 | 43 | 37 | 41 | 54 | 74 |
| | | Subject | | | Z A | I M | E G | | UR | ባ ቫ | ы Мы С | M S W |

TABLE 2

The time necessary for attaining homogeneous mixture in a lung bag system

| | | · | | | |
|---------|------------------|------------------------|----------------------------|---|---|
| Subject | Volume In bag | Number of respirations | Duration of rebreathing | Difference between hydrogen concen tration in alveolar sample and in bag | Time necessary for attaining homogeneous mixture |
| | liters | | seconds | per cent of hydrogen | seconds |
| PN | 18 | 7 | 18 | 0.00 | 20 |
| | ŀ | 10 | 20 | +0 05 | |
| |) | 11 | 21 | +0 03 | |
| |] | 13 | 23 | +0 03 | |
| I M | 12 | 7 | 17 | -0 03 | 18 |
| | İ | 6 | 18 | +0 02 | |
| | | 8 | 22 | (+0 08 f | |
| | | 8 | 25 | +0 01 | |
| E G | 15 | 7 | 16 | -0 15 | 20 |
| | [| 7 | 18 | -000 | |
| | | 7 | 21 | +001 | |
| | | 9 | 25 | +0 06 | |
| FΒ | 15 | 9 | 18 | -0 09 | 25 |
| | | 10 | 20 | -0 02 | |
| | | 12 | 23 | -005 | |
| | | 13 | 26 | +0 05 | |
| UR | 15 | 8 | 17 | -0 06 | 18 |
| | | 9 | 18 | +0 00 | |
| ļ | | 10 | 20 | +0 01 | |
| PF | 1 2 | 9 | 19 | -0 10 | 26 |
| j | | 8 | 23 | -012 | |
| | | 8 | 26 | 0.00 | |
| | | 9 | 28 | 0 00 | |
| ΕB | 1 3 | 7 | 16 | -004 | 20 |
| (| | 8 | 19 | 0 00 | |
| } | | 10 | 21 | +0 01 | |
| } | | 10 | 23 | +0 01 | |
| w c | 1 2 | 15 | 50 | -0 10 | Incomplete |
| | | | | ļ | muxture |

of heart failure, it is ordinarily relatively less important than the factor of inadequate mixture, which has just been discussed

The influence of a pathological condition on diffusion through the lung can be obtained from an analysis of the degree of oxygen saturation of the arterial blood. The fact that significant anoxemia occurs only in severe cases of congestive heart failure is an indication that this is a result only of extreme modifications from normal.

It is necessary to consider the possibility of failure to obtain a true equilibrium in cases in which oxygen deficiency of the arterial blood exists

In the "oxygen Fick" methods in which it is necessary to secure equilibrium between the gas in the blood and that in a bag, the difference in tension between the two may not be great. Nevertheless any impediment to the passage of oxygen across the pulmonary epithelium may lead to erroneous results. It was this possibility which led Burwell and Robinson to apply their method to normal individuals only

One of the fundamental assumptions of the acetylene method is the occurrence of true physicochemical equilibrium between this gas in the alveoli and in the blood. That equilibrium occurs in persons with normal circulatory systems and even in some cases of decompensated heart disease was demonstrated by Baumann and Grollman (2) and by Grollman, Proger, and Dennig (6). In one case (senile emphysema with chronic congestive failure) the former authors failed to observe its occurrence. This failure was attributed to an inability to obtain mixture in the lung-bag system and was therefore apparent and not real. Unless one obtains an actual alveolar sample, one cannot judge whether equilibrium has occurred in the lungs by comparison of the gas obtained with a sample of arterial blood. So far as measurement of the cardiac output is concerned, the question is purely academic whether equilibrium has occurred or whether failure to attain it is due to failure to obtain a true alveolar sample. Regardless of the cause, the method is inapplicable in such a case.

In Figures 1, 2, 3, and 4 are reproduced typical experiments demonstrating the relation of the concentrations of acetylene in the blood and in the gas mixtures rebreathed. Two patients (Figs 1 and 2) rebreathed an acetylene-air mixture from a rubber bag as is usual in measuring the cardiac output. At certain intervals samples of arterial blood and a gas sample from the bag were collected and their acetylene contents determined as described by Grollman, Proger, and Dennig (6). It will be noted in

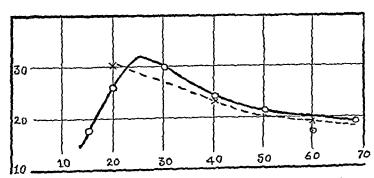


FIG 1 A COMPARISON OF THE ACETYLENE CONTENT OF THE ALVEOLAR AIR AND THE ARTERIAL BLOOD WHILE REBREATHING FROM A RUBBER BAG SUBJECT E G (SEC TABLE 1)

Ordinates represent the acetylene tension in millimeters of mercury, the abscissae represent the time in seconds after beginning the rebreathing

O Blood samples

Gas samples

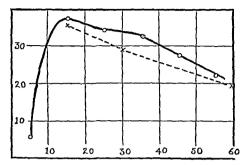


Fig 2 A Comparison of the Acetylene Content of the Alveolar Air and the Arterial Blood While Rebreathing from a Rubber Bag Subject J M (see Table 1)

Ordinates represent the acetylene tension in millimeters of mercury, abscis sae the time in seconds after beginning the rebreathing

O Blood samples

✓ Gas samples

Figure 1 that there is complete concordance between the amounts of acety-lene in the blood and in the bag at twenty seconds after beginning the rebreathing and thereafter. Since this subject could not mix in a period of time less than twenty seconds as seen in Table 2, the low content of acetylene in the samples of blood collected at fifteen and twenty seconds is to be attributed not to failure to attain equilibrium between the acetylene of the alveoli and the blood, but to the fact that it required twenty seconds to establish a uniform concentration of gas in the lung bag system. The remainder of the curve is evidence against the existence in this patient of

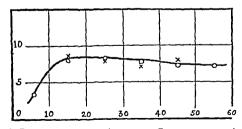


Fig 3 A Comparison of the Activlene Content of the Alveolar Air and the Arterial Blood While Rebreathing from a Spirometer Subject I M (see Table 1)

Ordinates represent the acetylene tension in millimeters of mercury abscis sae the time in seconds after beginning the breathing

O Blood samples

X Gas samples

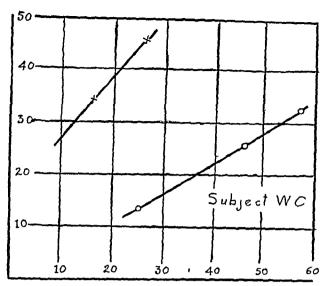


Fig 4 A Comparison of the Acetylene Content of the "Alveolar" Air and the Arterial Blood While Breathing from a Spirometer Subject W C (see Table 1)

Ordinates represent the acetylene tension in millimeters of mercury, abscissae, the time in seconds after beginning the breathing

O Blood samples

X Gas samples

an impediment to the passage of acetylene across the pulmonary epithelium which might interfere with the attainment of equilibrium between the gas in the lungs and in the blood

The curves of Figure 2 were obtained similarly to those of Figure 1 At five seconds, the acetylene concentration in the blood was very low, for insufficient time had elapsed since beginning of rebreathing to allow entrance into the alveoli of sufficient amounts of acetylene After fifteen seconds mixture in the lung-bag system occurred so that the acetylene content of the blood and of the alveoli was parallel The concentrations in the blood were higher, however, due to the fact that it requires five to ten seconds for the blood to travel from the lungs to the peripheral artery from which it is drawn If one allows for this (2, 6), there results an identity of the curves of the concentrations in the alveoli and in the blood which demonstrates the existence of true physicochemical equilibrium In Figure 1, there is also a tendency for the acetylene concentrations to be higher in the blood than in the alveoli but in this case the more gradual slope of the curve prevents this from manifesting itself prominently in the samples collected after forty seconds

The studies of Figures 1 and 2 as well as previous ones of Grollman and his coworkers require the time necessary for the passage of the blood from the lungs to the peripheral artery to be taken into consideration As is evident from the curves of Figures 1 and 2 and from the results of Baumann and Grollman (2), this possible source of error is negligible

being only one or two per cent. This smallness results from the relatively small drop in acetylene concentration which is taking place in the bag (Figs 1 and 2). The assumption involved need not be made, however, if a constant alveolar concentration is maintained. This is accomplished by having the subject inspire at a constant rate from a spirometer containing an acetylene air mixture. At given intervals forced expirations are made of which alveolar samples are collected. The results of such an experiment on I. M. are given in Figure 3. The concentrations of acetylene in the alveola and in the blood he on a uniform curve after fifteen seconds the time necessary for substituting the gas mixture for the air in the lungs.

Patients I M and E G were both cases of congestive heart failure (Table 1) and in them apparently the transport of acetylene across the lungs was sufficiently rapid to ensure equilibrium, despite the fact that there was a slight degree of arterial anoxemia in both subjects greater ease of attaining equilibrium between the blood and alveoli in the case of acetylene in comparison with oxygen, is what one might predict on strictly physical grounds Indeed, it may be said (in view of the experiments just cited and those previously reported) that it is improbable that interference with diffusion in the lung is ever the limiting factor of the acetylene method. Because of its high solubility and its small molecular weight the tension of acetylene in the blood is the same as that in the alveoli to which this blood is exposed But if conditions exist in which part of the lungs are fibrosed, consolidated collapsed or so markedly edematous as to prevent its entrance and, therefore, the passage of acetylene into the blood, the acetylene method cannot measure the blood flowing through these portions of lungs

One encounters subjects in whom analysis of the acetylene content of the blood shows a smaller concentration than is present in the supposed "alveolar" air. An example is shown in Figure 4 which illustrates the lack of relation between the acetylene contents of the blood and of the "alveolar" samples. In another similar experiment, the same patient inspired a mixture of gas, the acetylene tension of which was 54.4 mm, but whose arterial blood after breathing 55 seconds contained only 29.4 mm Mixing as tested on this patient (W. C. Table 2) was incomplete even offer 50 seconds rebreathing. The discordance in the acetylene content of "lung air" and blood as observed in this patient cannot be attributed therefore to any impermeability of the pulmonary epithelium but is due to an inability to obtain a true alveolar sample

The Burwell Robinson procedure

On the basis of the experiments already cited we can define the conditions under which a given cardiac output method based on respiratory maneuvres is applicable and the methods whereby its applicability can be tested The Burwell-Robinson procedure consists essentially in rebreathing repeatedly from a bag in order to obtain a gas in equilibrium with the mixed venous blood. Not only must mixture in the lung-bag system be ensured but sufficient time must be allowed thereafter for the blood to alter the composition of the gas in the bag. The circulation time cannot be exceeded and hence one is limited to a period of time about thirty seconds (in cases of congestive heart disease) in which to carry out the rebreathing. The process can be carried out repeatedly, however, and in this way one may in normal individuals finally obtain a mixture in true equilibrium with the mixed venous blood. Unfortunately, as has previously been indicated (4), constancy of the final mixture cannot (as has often been done in the past) be taken as a proof of equilibration. A patient with a large volume of residual air can replace the air in his lungs partially during the preliminary rebreathing and dilute the gas in the bag to a certain extent only. This was the source of error in a number of earlier methods.

TABLE 3

The oxygen content of two bags during alternate rebreathings

Subject P F (Table 1)

| Name of and another a | Orygen content | | | | | | |
|------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| Number of rebreathings | Bag 1 | Bag 2 | | | | | |
| 4 5 6 8 | per cent 4 95 4 87 4 40 4 17 | per cent 3 76 3 70 | | | | | |
| 11 12 | 4 15 | 3 85 | | | | | |

The experiment cited in Table 3 demonstrates how delusive constancy of the composition of the bag mixture may be. The patient in this experiment (P F, Table 1) rebreathed alternatively from bags 1 and 2 as in the Burwell-Robinson method, the bags initially having contained mixtures of different oxygen contents. After nine rebreathings the oxygen content of bag 1 was constant and equal to 4 16 per cent. Bag 2, on the other hand, was little affected after the fourth rebreathing and had an oxygen content even after the eleventh rebreathing of only 3 85 per cent. Both of these bags could obviously not be in equilibrium with the mixed venous blood and hence the supposition of their equilibration with the patient's blood might lead to an erroneous result. It must be remembered also that due to the steepness of the oxygen dissociation curve of blood at the degree of oxygen saturation of the mixed venous blood even slight differences in oxygen tension cause a considerable difference in the oxygen content from which, in turn, is calculated the cardiac output

The extent to which the source of error just described may invalidate attempts to obtain a gas mixture in equilibrium with the mixed venous blood is further demonstrated in Table 4. In this experiment the patient,

TABLE 4

Changes in the oxygen content of the bag during rebreathings in a patient with congestive heart failure (E. G. Table 1)

| Experi | Number | Time for washing | Sam | ple 1 | Sam | ple 2 | Sam | ple 3 |
|----------------|--------------------|------------------------|--------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| ment number | of wash breaths | | Time of collection | Oxygen content | Time of collection | Oxygen content | Time of collection | Ox3 gen content |
| | | seconds | seconds | per cent | seconds | per cent | seconds | per cent |
| 1 | 1 | 5 | 20 | 4 27 | 24 | 4 27 | 28 | 4 19 |
| 2 | 2 | 5 | 20 | 3 99 | 25 | 3 99 | 30 | 3 91 |
| 3 | 3 | 7 | 27 | 3 23 | 30 | 3 30 | 34 | 3 21 |
| 4 | 4 | 7 | 23 | 1 41 | 1 ! | | 28 | 3 56 |
| 5 | 4 | 9 | 29 | 3 38 | 34 | 3 28 | 38 | 3 34 |

E G, rebreathed from a bag containing 12 liter of nitrogen were taken at various times during rebreathing. The number of the preliminary "wash" breaths were varied (column 1) in order to vary the oxygen contents of the lung bag system in the different experiments results demonstrate the marked effect which preliminary washings have on the final composition of the gas in the bag. This was observed also by Burwell and Robinson (3) The results also demonstrate the extremely small changes in oxygen content of the bag which can occur during the breathing of mixtures varying as much as one per cent in composition The rise in oxygen content (in the 3d experiment) and the absence of a decrease (in the first and second experiments) of the oxygen content between the collections of the first and second samples are due to inadequate mixture in the lung-bag system. The times in the 5th 7th and 9th columns refer to that which elapsed after beginning the washing. Actual mixture occurs only after the beginning of rebreathing and hence fifteen seconds (in the first and second experiment), or sixteen seconds (in the 4th experiment). do not suffice for attaining homogeneous mixture in the lung bag system at the time of collection of the first sample from the bag

In order to be certain that the value of a given experiment is not destroyed by the illusive constancy described, it is necessary to approach the final equilibrium with various oxygen contents in the bag. After prelim mary rebreathing the patient should rebreathe a given mixture and two samples should be taken after adequate mixture has been attained and before recirculation has begun. It may be advisable to measure the oxygen content with an accuracy greater than ± 0.01 per cent in order to detect small changes such as are masked in Table 4 in which the results are accurate only to about ± 0.05 per cent

Another procedure which may possibly avoid the source of error under discussion is one which was employed by Burwell and Robinson. Their subjects rebreathed alternately into two bags, the one having an oxygen tension below and the other an oxygen tension above that of the mixed venous blood. In their normal subjects the oxygen tension of the two bags became identical. We have verified their observations in several patients with cardiac disease, but have found others, especially cases of luetic aortic insufficiency, in whom the final values differed markedly as in Table 3. Obviously the results obtained by this method, in patients with heart failure, are open to grave errors unless one ensures the absence of all the vitiating factors just described. Other so-called "Fick" oxygen or carbon dioxide methods are even more liable to error in such patients.

The venous plateau method

In applying this method one must consider the possible sources of error outlined in connection with the Burwell-Robinson method in obtaining the gas mixture used in the final rebreathing

In drawing blood from the femoral artery certain precautions must, however, also be observed. In the first place ample time must elapse to allow mixture between the gas in the bag and in the lungs to take place during the final rebreathing. Samples of blood must be drawn either before or within ten seconds after the patient stops rebreathing, otherwise mixture of partially aerated blood with mixed venous blood may give a plateau which is not representative of the true mixed venous blood. Nor can the patient continue to rebreathe after the completion of a circulation time unless the composition of the rebreathed gas be maintained constant, for example, by allowing the patient to breathe from a spirometer containing gas identical in composition with that in the bag after the final rebreathing

Despite the theoretical applicability of this method for permitting the prolongation of the rebreathing time, it is impracticable because anoxemia (particularly in patients with congestive heart disease) causes extreme discomfort and may initiate an attack of cardiac pain in persons with coronary disease or aortic insufficiency. Anoxemia may in fact cause marked reduction in cardiac output with consequent prolongation of the circulation time in diseased hearts. Blood samples taken more than five to ten seconds after cessation of the rebreathing may therefore give a plateau which in no way represents that of the mixed venous blood. The plateau corresponding to the mixed venous blood, to be reliable, must occur in the blood of the femoral artery about ten seconds after adequate mixture in the lungbag system has occurred. Before this time the mixed venous blood will lose oxygen if the patient has been "overwashed" in the preliminary "wash breaths" or will take it up if this washing has been insufficient. Only after homogeneous mixture has occurred does the blood reflect the

composition of the gas mixture in the bag. Correlation of the time at which an oxygen plateau in the blood occurs with that of the stage of rebreathing is, therefore, of great importance

A more detailed discussion of the possible sources of error in the Burwell-Robinson and venous plateau methods will be given in a future publication (7)

The acetylene method

The validity of the underlying assumptions of the acetylene method has been described in detail elsewhere (4) and need not be repeated. In applying the method to cases with congestive heart failure one must consider the three fundamental requirements of the method (1) Do the samples taken for analysis represent the gas which is in equilibrium with the blood traversing the lungs? (2) Does the gas in the alveolar air enter into equilibrium with the blood? (3) Is the rebreathing procedure completed before the time of a complete circulation of the blood?

As shown in Table 2 it is necessary to prolong the preliminary rebreathing of the acetylene mixture longer in cases of congestive heart failure than in normal individuals before taking the first sample. If the sample is taken before mixture occurs the resultant cardiac output will be false and may be as much as fifty per cent greater or less than the true value. The question of attaining equilibrium across the pulmonary epithelium as all ready stated seldom, if ever, is involved in applying the acetylene method Care must be taken, however, not to continue rebreathing beyond a circulation time, otherwise the estimate of the cardiac output will be too low

In applying the acetylene method in congestive heart failure how can its applicability be tested without undertaking the laborious work of determining the various factors just outlined? Taking three samples for analysis instead of two suffices for this purpose. The apparatus previously described (4) has been altered to provide another capillary tube which permits collection of the third sample. In cases of congestive heart disease the samples are taken preferably at 20, 25, and 30 seconds after beginning the rebreathing. The samples taken at 20 and 25 seconds are used to calculate one value and those taken at 25 and 30 are used for another. If these agree within the limits of the experimental technical errors one is assured that the assumptions underlying the applicability of the method are valid and that the result is accurate. In all measurements this procedure, involving as it does little extra work, is suggested even in cases in which the applicability of the method can be taken for granted

In Figure 5 is reproduced an experiment illustrating these points. The patient (P. N., cf. Table 1) could bring mixture about, as shown in Table 2, in twenty seconds. Samples collected at 18 and 23 seconds give an apparent cardiac output of 4.25 liters, a value too high because the first sample was taken at 18 seconds when mixture was not quite complete and,

had, therefore, a higher content of acetylene than was present in the alveoli and in equilibrium with the blood. When samples were taken at 20 and 25 seconds and at 25 and 30 seconds, values were obtained which agreed within the limits of the accuracy of the analytical methods employed. The average of these values (3.8 liters) was the correct cardiac output of this patient under the condition of the experiment. When the samples were taken at 30 and 35 seconds, the estimation was too low (3.1 liters), because blood containing acetylene had returned to the lungs. In the cases of congestive heart failure which we have studied, recirculation was evident after 30 seconds. This circulation time as observed in these pathological cases is longer than that observed (4) in normal persons due to the greater velocity of the normal blood flow.

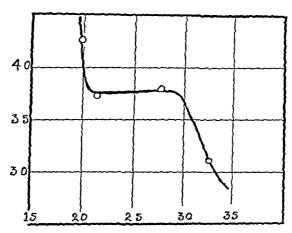


Fig 5 The Effect of Varying the Time of Sampling on the Apparent Cardiac Output as Obtained by the Acetylene Method Subject $P\ N$ (not basal)

The ordinates represent the apparent cardiac output in liters per minute, the abscissae the average time of collection of the two samples used in determining the cardiac output. The plateau represents the true cardiac output

Comparison of results by the different methods

The diversity in principles upon which the acetylene method (foreign gas principle) and the Burwell-Robinson and venous plateau methods (oxygen Fick principle) are based gives importance to a comparison of results obtained by these methods when applied to the same patient. In a previous paper, Harrison, Friedman and Clark (7) have shown the excellent

All discussions of the circulation time in the present paper refer obviously only to man. It is well known (4) that the relative circulatory rates in the smaller mammals is greater than it is in man. Hence it is not surprising that Starr and Collins (Am. J. Physiol., 1933, civ., 650) should have found an appreciable return of blood to the heart in 15 seconds in dogs. Their conclusions are obviously inapplicable to man

agreement obtained by the various methods in normal subjects. This may be taken as added evidence for the accuracy with which the cardiac output in normal subjects may be measured by these methods. In Table 5 are

TABLE 5

A comparison of results obtained by the Burwell Robinson venous plateau and acetylene methods as applied to patients with congestive heart failure

| | | | | | · | | |
|---------|-----------------------|--|----------------------|---|----------------------|---|----------------------|
| | | Acety meti | | Burwell R meth | | Venous met | |
| Subject | Oxygen consumption | Arterio- venous oxygen difference | Cardiae output | Arterio- venous oxy gen difference | Cardiae output | Arterio venous ovygen difference | Cardiac output |
| | cc per minute | cc per liter | liters per minute | cc per liter | liters per minute | cc per liter | liters per minute |
| UR | 198 | 90 | 22 | 94 | 21 | 90 | 22 |
| MY | 170 | 50 | 34 | 50 | 34 | 50 | 34 |
| EΒ | 233 | 71 | 3 3 | 61 | 38 | 68 | 34 |
| M S | 215 | 65 | 3 3 | 60 | 35 | 67 | 3 2 |
| PF | 212 | 60 | 36 | 57 | 37 | 62 | 34 |
| ΕG | 263 | 81 | 3 2 | } | | | } |
| ΡN | 258 | 69 | 37 | | | | 1 |
| I M | 180 | 84 | 2 1 | 1 | | } | ł |
| | 1 | (| (| (| [| | ı |

given a series of results obtained in patients with congestive heart disease. The procedures were performed at one sitting. The results agree within the limits of the experimental errors involved and add further evidence of the validity of the theoretical considerations now discussed and the accuracy of the results obtained.

Relatively few values of the cardiac output in congestive heart failure are to be found in the literature in which the necessary precautions have been taken to demonstrate the applicability of the method to the patient under investigation. In view of the small number of cases which we have studied (Table 5) no final conclusion concerning the cardiac output in cardiac disease seems warranted. Of the eight patients cited in Table 5, the cardiac index (4) is reduced in five and within normal limits in the remainder. This does not necessarily imply, however, that the blood supply to the tissues in these cases is adequate, for under the disturbed conditions in the body, particularly in the presence of edema (8), the normal blood supply may still be inadequate for proper supply of the metabolic requirements of the tissues. During exertion, moreover the cardiac output in these patients may be markedly reduced from the normal (1). We have not yet found patients with congestive failure and abnormally great cardiac output

Choice of methods

As to the relative merits of using one or another of the methods studied, the laboriousness of the Burwell-Robinson and venous plateau methods

both to the patient and to the investigator renders them inferior to the relatively simple acetylene procedure. In persons with normal arterial oxygen saturation the method of taking three samples, as advocated above, for the acetylene method should exclude the possibility of error With care, moreover, the method will be found to be applicable to a large percentage of subjects with advanced cardiac disease and with mild congestive In those subjects in whom the method is not applicable, the venous plateau method may be applied Unfortunately, it is in these very cases that the pitfalls inherent in the latter method occur and great care and labor are required to avoid them A further study of these cases is contemplated

SUMMARY

A critical study has been made of the possible sources of error of the Burwell-Robinson, venous plateau and acetylene methods for measuring the cardiac output which may invalidate the results obtained when applying them to patients with congestive heart failure The methods to be used for detecting and avoiding these errors are indicated Results as obtained by these different methods are given

It is a pleasure to express our appreciation to Dean W S Leathers for interest in the work and for a grant of money which made our collaboration possible We are also indebted to Dr C S Burwell for his helpful criticism and advice during the present study

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PHYSIOLOGICAL DISTURBANCES DURING EXPERIMENTAL DIPHTHERITIC INTOXICATION I BLOOD SUGAR, LACTIC ACID AND NON-PROTEIN AND AMINO-ACID NITROGEN¹

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(Received for publication May 20 1933)

The therapy of diphtheria and control of the disease is largely based on outstanding achievements in the field of immunology, starting with von Behring's discovery of antitoxin, going on to Schick's method of measuring susceptibility to toxin and culminating in the development of means of producing active immunity by injection of a toxin antitoxin mixture. Although the administration of antitoxin constitutes the chief mode of treating diphtheria, in a considerable number of severe cases this therapy alone is madequate. It was believed, therefore, that additional study of the meta bolic disturbances of diphtheritic intoxication was indicated and might supply data which would suggest additional lines of treatment. This and three subsequent papers (29, 30) will report studies in this field

Disturbances in carbohydrate metabolism during experimental and clinical diphtheritic intoxication have been the subject of intensive investigation. In 1914, Rosenthal (1) demonstrated delayed sugar tolerance curves in rabbits following the injection of diphtheria toxin This was confirmed by other in vestigators (2, 3, 4) With doses of toxin which lead to death in two to three days Rosenthal and others (4 5 6) frequently found markedly reduced fasting blood sugar values 12 to 24 hours before the death of the animals Lawrence and Buckley (7), injecting smaller doses of diphtheria toxin (causing death in from 6 to 8 days), noted the occasional occurrence of a pre lethal rise in the blood sugar Schwentker and Noel (6) demonstrated a similar tendency to wards hyperglycemia in the less severely intoxicated animals. They found a fairly close direct relationship between the period of survival and the elevation of the blood sugar Impairment of the normal blood sugar depressing action of insulin was demonstrated in rabbits poisoned with diphtheria toxin by Lawrence and Buckley (7) and by Netzley (8) Sweeney (4), on the other hand, could find no diminution in the response to insulin, under similar conditions

Investigations during the course of diphtheria in humans yielded results which are similar in many respects to those cited above found delayed sugar tolerance curves in 5 of 6 patients peated during convulescence were all normal. Similar findings were reported

¹ This work was aided by a grant from The Corn Products Refining Company

by Elkeles and Heimann (10), Prochajka (11), Schwentker and Noel (6), Benn, Hughes and Alstead (12) and Brems (13) In occasional patients the fasting blood sugar values were found moderately elevated (9, 10, 13), in one patient reported by Elkeles and Heimann, as high as 400 mgm per cent. The latter authors also reported extremely low blood sugar values in some of their patients. The injection of insulin prior to the administration of glucose for the sugar tolerance tests was found by Elkeles and Heimann to have no appreciable effect upon the resulting curve. Schwentker and Noel, on the other hand, found that the injection of insulin definitely altered the response in the direction of the normal sugar tolerance curve.

The occurrence of glycosuria during the clinical course of diphtheria has been noted. Hibbard and Morrissey (14) found reducing substances in the urine of 34 of 96 patients and in 8 of 9 fatal cases. The glycosuria in the non-fatal cases was transitory, disappearing during convalescence. Brems (13) also found spontaneous glycosuria in some of his patients. Elkeles and Heimann, on the other hand, failed to find urinary sugar in any of the cases, despite the presence of hyperglycemia.

The bearing of the above investigations upon the nature of the disturbance in carbohydrate metabolism during diphtheritic intoxication has been the subject of much speculation. The suggestions that have been offered fall principally into two groups, namely (1) a disturbance in the adrenals or related glands of internal secretion, (2) a depression or dysfunction of the insulin mechanism Rosenthal (1), Mikami (5) and Elkeles and Heimann (10) favored the former concept of adrenal damage, although Rosenthal felt that liver injury played an important but secondary rôle. Lawrence and Buckley (7), on the basis of histological evidence of injury to the thyroid and adrenals, implicated the latter glands as the responsible factors. Hector (9) considered that the basis for the disturbance lay in a derangement of the entire endocrine apparatus as well as moderate liver injury. The insulin mechanism was believed primarily responsible for the disturbances of carbohydrate metabolism by Sweeney (4), Sweeney and Lackey (3), Schwentker and Noel (6) and Benn, Hughes and Alstead (12). The latter two groups of investigators utilized insulin and glucose as an adjunct to the antitoxin treatment of the disease with apparently good results

The literature on the nonprotein nitrogen constituents of the blood is less In 1914, Karsner and Denis (15) found, following the injection of diphtheria toxin into cats, a slight increase of the nonprotein nitrogen during the first 2 days and then a marked rise up to 200 mgm per cent 1 or 2 days be-They attributed these results to the development of fore death (4 to 6 days) a nephritis, tubular in nature, during the early phase of the intoxication and vascular during the latter phases Glesinger-Reischer and Glesinger (16) found the blood urea nitrogen greater than 30 mgm per cent in 16 of 21 patients with diphtheria and over 50 mgm per cent in seven Following the administration of antitoxin, 20 to 50 per cent reductions in the urea values occurred in about half of the patients Because of the essentially negative urinary findings they attributed the elevations in blood urea to the toxic destruction of body proteins Prochajka (11) found that the nonprotein nitrogen of the blood was a most valuable prognostic sign in diphtheria patients From a study of 86 cases he cited the following statistics (1) when the nonprotein nitrogen was less than 40 mgm per cent, the mortality was 5 per cent, (2) when the nonprotein nitrogen was between 40 and 50 mgm per cent, the mortality was 32 per cent, (3) when the nonprotein nitrogen was over 80 mgm per cent, the mortality was 69 per cent

In experimental animals and patients with diphtheria. Lereboullet, Gournay and Donato (17) found elevated blood urea but no disturbance in elimination of phenolsulphonephthalein nor marked histological changes in the kidneys. They emphasized the fact that the degree of azotemia was directly proportional to the severity of the diphtheritic intoxication and believed that the elevation in blood urea was brought about by a suprarenal disturbance. It is important to point out here that the phenolsulphonephthalein excretion test becomes difficult of interpretation in the presence of the severe liver damage that is usually found in diphtheritic intoxication. Hanner and Whipple (18) showed that liver injury produced by chloroform and phosphorus poisoning was accompanied by a definite increase in the renal excretion of the dve. A normal excretion during diphtheria therefore cannot be used as an indication of normal renal functions. Derot (19) demonstrated, in rabbits injected with diphtheria toxin that the rise in blood nonprotein nitrogen was accompanied by a roughly parallel rise in blood creatinine.

No reports of amino acid determinations in experimental diphtheritic poisoning or clinical diphtheria have been found in the literature

PROCEDURE AND METHODS

Rabbits weighing from 1400 to 2000 grams were employed in this investigation as the experimental animals. The diet for approximately one week prior to the experimental period consisted of a liberal supply of greens and oats. All food was removed from the cages 24 hours before the injection of the diphtheria toxin, and none was given during the balance of the experimental period. Water was supplied in liberal quantity. The diphtheria toxin used was found to contain 62 minimal lethal doses per cubic centimeter. The toxin was diluted with sterile saline so that the calculated dose was contained in about 0.3 cc. of solution. This was injected intravenously.

One series of animals received approximately three quarters, and another series two to three minimal lethal doses. The smaller dose caused the death of the animals in from 4 to 7 days, the larger dose, in from 1 to 3 days. The animals were bled by cardiac puncture every day or every other day, depending on the severity of the intoxication. About 5 cubic centimeters of blood were drawn off and transferred to a bottle containing sufficient potassium oxalate to prevent clotting. Each bottle also contained a small quantity of powdered so dum flue-ide to inhibit glycolysis. The Folin Wu method of precipitation was used to obtain a protein free filtrate.

For the blood sugar determinations the Shaffer, Hartmann and Somogyi (20) method was employed Nonprotein nitrogen was determined colorimetrically by direct Nesslerization following digestion of the protein free filtrate with sulphuric acid and 30 per cent hydrogen peroxide Lactate was determined by the method of Avery and Hastings (21)

Amino acid nitrogen was determined by Folin's colorimetric method (22) It was found using the quantities prescribed by Folin, namely, 5 cc of the 1 10 filtrate and 1 cc of the 0.5 per cent solution of sodium \(\textit{g}\) naphthoquinonesultonate, that the largest concentrations of amino-acid nitrogen which could be determined with any degree of accuracy approximated from 6 to 10 mgm per 100 cc of blood Schmidt (23) made this same observation in a paper published in 1929. It was found most practicable in cases where there was doubt as to the approximate concentration of the amino acid nitrogen to set up a series of 3 tubes for each specimen of blood containing 1, 3 and 5 cc respectively of the filtrate and to add 2 cc of the reagent to each. The tube in which the color

that developed was most closely matched by the standard, was used for the colorimetric comparison. The error in the method is approximately 5 per cent in the lower values and 10 per cent when dealing with values in the vicinity of 40 to 60 mgm per cent.

RESULTS

The results are summarized in Tables I and II, and representative experiments are graphically presented in Charts I and 2. It is evident that the data confirm the findings of previous investigators as to the changes that occur in the blood nonprotein nitrogen and sugar during the experimental intoxications. Briefly, the results can be described as follows

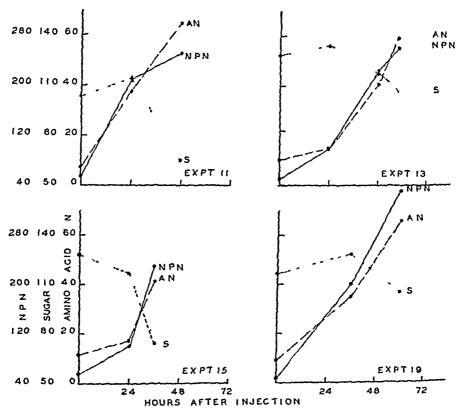


CHART 1 CHANGES OF BLOOD SUGAR, NONPROTEIN NITROGEN AND AMINO-ACID NITROGEN FOLLOWING THE INJECTION OF 3 MINIMAL LETHAL DOSES OF DIPHTHERIA TOXIN

After a relatively large dose of toxin, i.e., one causing death in less than 3 days, there is a progressive increase in the nonprotein nitrogen which can be demonstrated as early as 24 hours after the injection, a definite tendency for the blood sugar to fall, in some cases, to relatively low levels, a rather abrupt rise in the amino-acid nitrogen (Chart 1). After a smaller dose of toxin, i.e., one causing death in from 4 to 7 days, the changes are slower in appearing, but just as definite (Chart 2). These are a gradual, but progressive rise in the nonprotein nitrogen, a tendency for the blood

sugar either to change little or to rise to definite hyperglycemic levels, and a slight to moderate rise in the amino acid nitrogen early with in some cases a tendency for the amino acid nitrogen to decrease subsequently, or remain moderately elevated until the death of the animal

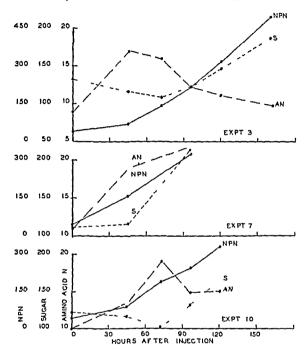


CHART 2 CHANGES OF BLOOD SUGAR, NONPROTEIN NITROGEN AND AMINO ACID NITROGEN FOLLOWING THE INJECTION OF 08 MINIMAL LETHAL DOSE OF DIPHTHERIA TOXIN

The nonprotein nitrogen rises at a regular rate with both doses of toxin Although the nonprotein nitrogen increases more rapidly in the animals receiving the larger dose of toxin it attains greater final concentration in the animals receiving the smaller dose of toxin. Apparently the final height of the nonprotein nitrogen is dependent chiefly on the duration of the intoxication.

The sugar and amino acid nitrogen values present an interesting relationship. This can be more clearly observed in some of the individual experiments. With the larger dose of toxin, as the blood sugar fell, the

amino-acid nitrogen rose For example, in Experiment 11 (see Chart 1), the blood sugar after 24 hours was 113 mgm per cent and the amino-acid nitrogen 35 mgm per cent Coincident with the fall in sugar to 65 the amino-acid nitrogen rose to 55 Again, in Experiment 15, as the sugar fell from 117 to 73 the amino-acid nitrogen rose from 161 to 415 Similarly, in Experiment 13, the amino-acid nitrogen rose from 15 to 60 while the sugar fell from 135 to 108 In general it may be said that in the rabbits that die before the 3d day after having received relatively large doses of diphtheria toxin, the hypoglycemia is almost invariably accompanied by a marked amino-acidemia

In the experiments in which the rabbits received smaller doses of toxin and survived from 4 to 7 days, the situation was somewhat different. The changes can best be pointed out in the experiments in which the animals survived the longest, namely, Experiments 3 and 10 (Chart 2). In these there is, at first, a very slight fall in the blood sugar values, coincident with a slight rise in the amino-acid nitrogen. Later, as the hyperglycemia develops, there is a tendency for the amino-acid to remain relatively stationary or to return to the pre-injection level. As has been pointed out, not all of the animals receiving the small dose of toxin develop hyperglycemia, nor do all show this relationship between the height of the blood sugar and the amino-acidemia as definitely as it has been described above. The significance of this will be discussed later.

PATHOLOGY

A number of histological sections were made of the various organs of the animals used in the chemical studies. Although these sections do not demonstrate any facts not already recognized, they permit correlation of the anatomical changes with the various stages of diphtheritic intoxication manifested in the chemical disturbances. Briefly, the histological changes in the animals receiving the larger dose of toxin were as follows. (1) Necrosis of the liver parenchyma involving in some cases the major part of the liver cells. (2) A tubular and glomerular nephritis which in extreme cases led to necrosis of large areas of the kidneys. (3) Degeneration of heart muscle fibers. (4) Hemorrhages in various organs including the adrenals and intestines. The last finding was not constant, but occurred in the animals most severely affected. The findings in the rabbits receiving the smaller doses were similar but less acute and extensive. The myocardial fibers were occasionally surrounded by round cells and some repair was apparently taking place. The liver in these, also, showed necrosis, which in some cases was limited to the area surrounding the central vein, with dilatation of the liver capillaries which gave a picture indistinguishable from that of chronic passive congestion. The kidney lesions were definite but did not seem to be necessarily irreparable. Lesions of the adrenal parenchyma, except in the presence of hemorrhage, could not be recognized with certainty after either dose. All the animals showed a

certain degree of dehydration as evidenced by diminished skin turgor, a relative increase in the concentration of hemoglobin (30) and loss of weight of 10 to 20 per cent in typical cases. All these findings have been described in human cases. We would particularly call attention to the liver and kidney lesions which have been overlooked most frequently.

DISCUSSION

The elevation of the nonprotein nitrogen can be most logically related to nephritis. This is confirmed also by the fact that the elevation of amino acid nitrogen does not parallel that of the nonprotein nitrogen. Undoubtedly dehydration aggravated the renal insufficiency. Control experiments demonstrated that starvation alone may lead to an elevation of the nonprotein nitrogen, but this rarely exceeded 75 mgm, per cent.

Previous work indicates that liver injury is the chief cause of elevation of amino acid nitrogen. Marshall and Rowntree (24) found elevated blood amino acid nitrogen in the terminal stages of phosphorus and chloroform poisoning. Lewis and Izume (25) found a similar elevation in hydrazine poisoning in rabbits. Elevations of amino acid nitrogen are also reported in acute yellow atrophy (Rabinowitch (26)), and in experimental yellow fever (Wakeman and Morrell (27)). Apparently the margin of safety in the deaminization function of the liver is so great that only extreme destruction of the liver leads to increase in the amino acid nitrogen Although an increase has been reported in rare cases of uremia, nephritis is not usually considered a cause of amino acidemia. The degree to which the amino-acid nitrogen increased in the rabbits given diphtheria toxin is greater than that reported in severe hepatic disease in humans, except in a few instances (Rabinowitch). The data demonstrate marked disturb ances of liver function corresponding to the extensive liver necrosis.

We have been unable to find reports of blood amino acid nitrogen determinations in patients with diphtheria and have only had opportunity to make this determination ourselves in two cases of severe diphtheria. In neither was there an elevation of amino acid nitrogen although one patient developed definite myocardial degeneration and severe neuritis. Probably only a small number of the most severe cases will show an elevation of the amino acid nitrogen

With the recognition of the role of hepatic degeneration in severe diph theria intoxication, the abnormality of carbohydrate metabolism receives an adequate explanation. With the greatest degrees of liver injury, the function of deminization is diminished and presumably other related processes which serve to convert non carbohydrate material to glucose fail. The loss of stored glycogen and the breakdown of the processes of glyconeogenesis lead to hypoglycemia. In Paper II of this series (29a) failure of the liver injured by diphtheria toxin to store glycogen is demonstrated. These findings are in agreement with the work of Corkil (28). This inability to store glycogen occurs in the animals receiving large and

small doses of toxin and can be demonstrated in animals at stages of the intoxication when no elevation of amino-acid can be demonstrated. With persistence of hepatic glyconeogenesis and impairment of hepatic glycogenesis, hyperglycemia develops. Since varying degrees of failure of these two hepatic functions may occur simultaneously, varying degrees of hypo- and hyperglycemia are found. As has been pointed out, hypoglycemia seems to be related to the rapidity of the increase of amino-acid nitrogen, and hyperglycemia to the period of survival when no increase in the amino-acid nitrogen occurs.

The relation of failure of hepatic glyconeogenesis to accumulation of blood lactic acid is presumably close. An attempt was made to study this by daily blood lactic acid determinations. The data are presented in Tables I and II. One hesitates to draw any conclusions from this material because

TABLE I

Changes in blood sugar, lactic acid and nonprotein and amino acid nitrogen following the intravenous injection of 3 minimal lethal doses of diphtheria toxin

| | <u> </u> | | | | | |
|-------------------|--|------------------------|-----------------|------------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| Experiment number | Period following injection of toxin | Nonprotein nitrogen | Sugar | Amino acid nitrogen | Lactic acid | Period of survival |
| | hours | mgm per cent | mgm per cent | mgm per cent | m Eq per liter | hours |
| | } | 50 | 103 | 70 | 2 4 | 1 |
| | 24 | 206 | 113 | 370 | 84 | { |
| 11 | 48 | 250 | 65 | 65 0 | 12 7 | 50 |
| | | 40 | 135 | 7 5 | 4 3 | |
| 12 | 24 | 170 | 77 | 37 0 | 14 8 | 28 |
| | | 50 | 129 | 10 2 | 3 4 | |
| | 24 | 100 | 135 | 150 | 66 | |
| | 48 | 225 | 118 | 41 0 | 8 1 | 50 |
| 13 | 54 | 265 | 108 | 60 0 | 90 | 59 |
| | | 44 | 133 | 110 | 76 | |
| 14 | 24 | 90 | 72 | 27 5 | 97 | 34 |
| | | 56 | 128 | 10 8 | 5 7 | |
| | 24 | 100 | 117 | 161 | 4 9 | 10 |
| 15 | 36 | 220 | 73 | 41 5 | 5 8 | 40 |
| | | 40 | 116 | 11 5 | 61 | 27 |
| 16 | 24 | 92 | 63 | 32 0 | 7 2 | |
| | | 45 | 119 | 10 2 | 69 | |
| 17 | 24 | 100 | 82 | 27 8 | 10 3 | |
| | | 50 | 128 | 90 | 50 | |
| 18 | 24 | 133 | 101 | 29 5 | 7 2 | 36 |
| | | 48 | 117 | 9 4 | 63 | |
| | 36 | 200 | 128 | 34 5 | 48 | |
| 19 | 60 | 350 | 106 | 66 0 | 120 | 63 |
| 17 | <u> </u> | | <u></u> | <u></u> | | |
| | | | | | | |

TABLE II

Changes in blood sugar lactic acid and nonprotein and amino acid nitrogen following the intravenous injection of ¾ minimal lethal dose of diphtheria toxin

| ===== | | | | | | |
|----------------------|--|------------------------|--|------------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| Experiment number | Period following injection of toxin | Nonprotein nitrogen | Sugar | Amino acid nitrogen | Lactic acid | Period of survival |
| | hours | mgm per cent | mgm per cent | mgm per cent | m Eq per liter | hours |
| | • | 40 | 123 | 10 3 | 97 | j |
| | 48 | 148 | 122 | 150 | 62 | |
| _ | 96 | 320 | 150 | 14 6 | 5 8 | |
| 1 | 120 | 410 | 158 | 11 4 | 68 | 128 |
| | | 43 | 136 | 95 | 10 7 | |
| I | 48 | 80 | 112 | 13 2 | 62 | |
| | 96 | 125 | 137 | 140 | 8 2 | 1 |
| | 120 | 210 | 218 | 14 9 | 78 | ł |
| | 144 | 260 | 196 | 125 | 50 | |
| 2 | 172 | 380 | } | 128 | 50 | 176 |
| | | 40 | 133 | 94 | 93 | |
| | 48 | 71 | 116 | 17 3 | 8 2 | |
| | 72 | 144 | 109 | 166 | 56 | |
| | 96 | 215 | 122 | 12 3 | 4.8 | |
| | 120 | 320 | 149 | 11 6 | 56 | |
| 3 | 168 | 500 | 187 | 100 | 7 7 | 184 |
| | | 44 | 105 | 8.8 | 7 1 | |
| • | 48 | 91 | 123 | 158 | 63 | |
| | 72 | 240 | 129 | 140 | 7.5 | |
| 4 | 96 | 450 | 109 | 169 | 65 | 97 |
| | | 42 | 127 | 97 | 8.6 | |
| | 48 | 100 | 118 | 14 4 | 73 | • |
| 5 | 72 | 380 | 160 | 160 | 50 | 90 |
| | | 33 | 119 | 8 8 | 9 2 | |
| | 48 | 105 | 118 | 154 | 87 | |
| 6 | 96 | 350 | 122 | 210 | 12 7 | 104 |
| | | 45 | 111 | 11 0 | 4 8 | |
| | 48 | 154 | 114 | 195 | 105 | |
| 7 | 96 | 330 | 215 | 22 0 | 92 | 104 |
| | ļ | 44 | 131 | 98 | 9.5 | |
| | 48 | 85 | 120 | 139 | 82 | |
| 8 | 72 | 230 | 132 | 340 | - " | 82 |
| | <u> </u> | 40 | 140 | 9 5 | 60 | |
| | 48 | 48 73 | 116 | 13 7 | 64 | |
| | 72 | 185 | 134 | 27 0 | ٠٠ } | |
| 9 | 96 | 300 | 237 | 32 0 | 1 | 98 |
| | | 40 | 122 | 99 | 5 6 | |
| | 48 | 83 | 116 | 134 | 12.5 | |
| | 72 | 190 | 100 | 190 | | |
| | 96 | 250 | 132 | 148 | 1 | |
| 10 | 120 | 340 | 165 | 15 2 | j | 128 |
| | <u> </u> | | لـــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــــ | | | |

of the wide variation in blood lactic acid levels in the normal animals. The pre-injection levels were so frequently markedly elevated, due to struggling during the removal of blood samples from the hearts, that we regard lactic acid determinations in rabbits as unreliable indices of the state of blood lactic acid under resting conditions. In general, one may say that with the less severe intoxication there is less tendency for the lactic acid to reach the markedly elevated levels that are sometimes encountered in the severely intoxicated rabbits.

A similar unreliability of the blood sugar values might be suspected However, essentially the same concentrations as those reported in this paper were found in blood taken from the ear when struggling was minimal. This fact, together with uniformity of the trend of the results, leads us to consider the blood sugar values reliable.

SUM MARY

- 1 The blood sugar, ammo-acid nitrogen, nonprotein nitrogen, and lactic acid were studied in fasting rabbits which had intravenous injections of small and large doses of diphtheria toxin
- 2 During the severe intoxication, hypoglycemia, marked amino-acidemia and azotemia were found
- 3 A tendency was demonstrated for the hypoglycemia to occur while the amino-acid nitrogen was rapidly increasing
- 4 During the mild intoxication hyperglycemia could be demonstrated in most of the animals that survived for 5 or more days. Under these circumstances the amino-acid nitrogen was only slightly elevated. Non-protein nitrogen became markedly elevated.
- 5 It is pointed out that the azotemia is probably related to nephritis produced by the toxin and perhaps aggravated by dehydration. The amino-acidemia is apparently brought about by extensive liver necrosis. The varying degrees of hypo- and hyperglycemia probably are related to varying degrees of failure of hepatic glyconeogenesis and glycogenesis.

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PHYSIOLOGICAL DISTURBANCES DURING EXPERIMENTAL DIPHTHERITIC INTOXICATION II HEPATIC GLYCO-GENESIS AND GLYCOGEN CONCENTRATION OF CARDIAC AND SKELETAL MUSCLE ¹

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(Received for publication May 20 1933)

In the first paper of this series (12) it was pointed out that during diphtheritic intoxication in rabbits there was evidence of liver disturbance, manifested by a marked rise in the amino acid nitrogen which in the more severe intoxications was accompanied by a hypoglycemia. When smaller doses of toxin were injected the amino acid nitrogen changed but little, while the blood sugar remained relatively normal or rose to hyperglycemic levels. Accompanying these changes the nonprotein nitrogen rose independently of the amino acid nitrogen, a finding which seemed to be asso ciated with the nephritis which could be demonstrated histologically

In order to associate, if possible, these findings of hypoglycemia, hyperglycemia and normal sugar values with liver injury, the assumption was made that the two chief functions of the liver concerned with carbohydrate metabolism may be injured separately or in varying degrees. It was felt that the failure of deaminization as indicated by the elevated amino-acid nitrogen concentrations could be interpreted as a type of injury that might be associated with the failure of hepatic glyconeogenesis leading to hypoglycemia. However if the formation of glucose from non carbohydrate material is only slightly impaired, a failure of hepatic glycogenesis would result in hyperglycemia.

The following experiments were designed to study the ability of rabbits suffering from diphtheritic intoxication to store glycogen in the various tissues. The effect of intravenous injections of glucose with and without insulin, on the liver and heart glycogen concentrations, is reported.

PROCEDURE AND METHODS

Rabbits weighing about 1500 grams were injected intravenously with 3/4 to 1 minimal lethal dose of diphtheritic toxin. This dose caused death in from 3 to 7 days. The rabbits were on a stock diet consisting of oats and greens until 24 hours before the injection of the toxin, when the food was removed

¹ This work was aided by a grant from The Corn Products Refining Company

from the cages Starvation was maintained throughout the balance of the experiment, water was offered freely The level of the blood nonprotein nitrogen was used as a fairly reliable index of the severity of the intoxication, this was determined daily and when it reached 100 to 150 mgm per cent or higher the operative phase of the experiment was started (Previous experience indicated that diphtheritic rabbits with a blood nonprotein nitrogen level of this magnitude die within 24 to 48 hours) As an anesthetic, one-half cubic centimeter of a 10 per cent freshly prepared amytal solution per kilogram of body weight was injected intraperitoneally Following the development of adequate anesthesia the liver was exposed by a mid-line upper abdominal incision section of liver weighing approximately 3 to 5 grams was removed, bleeding being effectively controlled by a ligature, and was immediately cut into small pieces and dropped into a weighed tube containing 60 per cent potassium hydroxide for glycogen determination. In one series of animals 5 cc of a 50 per cent glucose solution was then injected intravenously immediately, and again after an interval of 20 minutes In another series the same technique was employed except that 2 1/2 units of insulin were injected along with the glucose solution One hour following the last administration of glucose another section of liver was obtained for glycogen determination (Preliminary experiments had shown that the increase of liver glycogen was approximately the same after one as it was after two hours) The hearts were removed at the same time as the second liver section The controls were subjected to precisely the same procedure, including the starvation regime, for a similar period of time

Data referable to the glycogen content of liver, heart and skeletal muscle were obtained from another series of animals on a similar fasting regime. The tissues were removed within 30 seconds after the animal was stunned by a blow at the base of the skull. At the time of these determinations the blood non-protein nitrogen of the diphtheritic animals was about 150 to 200 mgm per cent. The same dose of toxin was used in this series as in the one previously described.

The glycogen method employed was fashioned after Pfluger's original procedure but was sufficiently modified to warrant description About 5 grams of tissue were cut into small sections as soon as possible after removal from the animal and collected in a weighed centrifuge tube of 100 cc capacity containing 10 cc of 60 per cent potassium hydroxide solution, which was then reweighed Digestion was allowed to take place in a steam bath for a period of three hours, or until a relatively clear liquid resulted Approximately 75 to 80 cc of 95 per cent alcohol were then added and the tube allowed to remain in a refrigerator overnight to insure complete glycogen precipitation. The tube was then centrifuged at moderate speed for 10 minutes, the supernatant fluid siphoned off and the glycogen precipitate washed with 25 cc of 95 per cent alcohol Following another centrifugation for 10 minutes the supernatant fluid was again removed One drop of phenolphthalein and 25 cc of water were added and the resulting solution neutralized by the careful addition of 25 per cent (This usually required 4 to 5 drops) Two and one-half hydrochloric acid cc of the acid were then added, producing a final acidity approximately equivalent to a 2 1/2 per cent hydrochloric acid solution. The glycogen was then hydrolyzed by heating in a steam bath for three hours The resulting solution was neutralized and made up to a suitable volume and the glucose content determined in aliquots by Somogyi's modification of the Shaffer-Hartmann sugar method The glycogen content is expressed as milligrams of glucose per gram of tissue The method has an error in duplicates of about 8 per cent

RESULTS

In Chart 1 are graphically tabulated the results of the determinations of the glycogen content of liver, muscle and heart, in both diphtheritic and normal animals. There are two striking observations to be made first, that there is essentially no difference in the glycogen content of the heart and skeletal muscles of the diphtheritic as compared to the normal animals second, that there is a definite diminution in the glycogen content of diph theritic livers as compared to normals

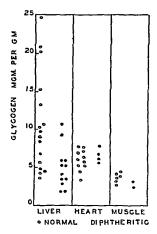


CHART 1 THE GLYCOGEN CONCENTRATION OF LIVER HEART AND MUSCLE IN NORMAL AND DIPHTHERITIC RABBITS

The glycogen content of normal and diphtheritic livers before and after the injection of glucose and glucose plus insulin is graphically represented in Chart 2. The glycogen concentration of the liver before and after the glucose and glucose plus insulin injections is represented by a circle and arrow end respectively. The length of the intervening line represents the actual increase in glycogen concentration in milligrams per gram of tissue. In the normal animals the injection of glucose brought about an increase in the glycogen content of the liver which varied from 6 to 29 mgm per gram of tissue, in other words an increase of from approximately 0.5 to 2 per cent in glycogen concentration. The addition of insulin, it will be seen, had no appreciable effect in normal animals a finding which is similar to that described by other investigators.

In the diphtheritic animals on the other hand, following the injection of glucose the increase in liver glycogen varied from less than 1 mgm to

In Chart 3 the results of the glycogen determinations on the hearts of the normal and diphtheritic animals, following the intravenous injection of glucose, with and without insulin, are represented. These have been compared to the values found in the untreated animals. There is no significant difference in the cardiac glycogen of normal and diphtheritic animals following injections of glucose. However, the cardiac glycogen of diphtheritic animals following the injection of glucose plus insulin may be significantly greater than in the other groups.

DISCUSSION

Early in this investigation it was appreciated that diphtheritic rabbits refuse all food relatively soon after receiving an injection of toxin and should, therefore, be regarded as fasting animals. Since one of the striking effects of starvation is a depletion of the glycogen stores, it was apparent that in a comparative study of glycogen content of various tissues in normal and intoxicated animals, one would have to consider not only the effect of the diphtheria toxin but also of starvation. It was felt that the most practical procedure for minimizing this difficulty was to maintain both groups of animals on a similar fasting regime. We thus felt that any differences encountered in the glycogen concentrations of the examined tissues could with greater reliability, be attributed to the effect of the diphtheria toxin alone.

Although diphtheria both clinically and experimentally, is a generalized disease process and not limited to any one particular organ it is nevertheless true that the myocardial involvement is an outstanding and relatively frequent manifestation of a severe intoxication. Warthin (1) in his review of the anatomical changes in the heart in diphtheria suggested the possibility that some of the encountered lesions may well be related to a nutritional disturbance. Schwentker and Noel (2), who, on the basis of their experimental and clinical investigations and a review of the literature, stressed the theory of insulin dysfunction as the cause of the carbohydrate disturbance, believed that failure of glycogenesis played an important role in the myocardial insufficiency. It was therefore with interest that we noted no essential difference in the glycogen concentration of the hearts of diphtheritic and normal animals. As far as we can determine from a review of the available literature there have been no determinations of heart glycogen in diphtheritic animals.

The few determinations of heart glycogen before and after injection of glucose cannot be interpreted with certainty. There is no evidence that the amount of glucose injected increased the heart glycogen in either the diphtheritic or normal animals. The group of diphtheritic animals subjected to intravenous injection of glucose plus insulin have slightly higher heart glycogens than the controls. The difference in the averages is just three times the probable error of the differences. However, in a small

number of determinations such a difference cannot be regarded as more than suggestive

An occasional reference to muscle glycogen determinations in experimental diphtheritic intoxication is found in the literature. Schwentker and Noel found the muscles of three animals completely devoid of glycogen and in a fourth, 0.16 per cent. Rosenthal (3) in three rabbits found the muscle glycogen to be 0.165, 0.245 and 0.305 per cent respectively. We have found in six animals the glycogen concentration to vary from 0.23 to 0.43 per cent, but we have also found that in six normal animals under a similar starvation régime the muscle glycogen was approximately of similar magnitude, varying from 0.26 to 0.42 per cent. In other words, as in the case of cardiac glycogen, no essential difference could be demonstrated between the muscle glycogen of normal and diphtheritic animals.

An entirely different picture is presented when one examines the values for the glycogen concentration of the livers in the diphtheritic animals In this case there is a definite decrease in the intoxicated rabbits, the glycogen content varying from 012 to 063 per cent, and averaging about 035 per cent, while in the normal but fasted rabbits the concentration in the liver varies from 04 to 20, averaging about 10 per cent. Whether the liver shares to a greater extent in the general systemic intoxication than does either the heart or muscle, as these data would seem to imply, is not abso-Histologically the liver exhibits more injury than the cardiac or skeletal muscle However, it is probable that a large part of the liver glycogen serves primarily as storage material, and that it is the diminution in this fraction which accounts for the marked difference in the glycogen concentration encountered On the other hand in the heart and to a lesser extent in muscle, most of the glycogen content is intimately related to the immediate metabolic needs of the tissues in question, and is, therefore, less likely to be involved in an injury of relatively similar degree than is the glycogen of the liver

The data obtained in the study of hepatic glycogenesis show a marked disturbance in the ability of the diphtheritic liver either to store or to form glycogen or both. Furthermore, the injection of insulin does not correct this deficiency. Numerous investigators have demonstrated a marked decrease in carbohydrate tolerance as evidenced by diabetic-like sugar tolerance curves. Moreover, Lawrence and Buckley (4), Netzley (5) and Sweeney (6) in animals, and Elkeles and Heimann (7) and Schwentker and Noel (2) in human cases of diphtheria, have found a decided impairment in the normal depressing action of insulin on the sugar tolerance curves. As was previously pointed out, this has been interpreted by some to signify insulin dysfunction or actual insufficiency. It is apparent that an inability of the liver to remove glucose for storage as glycogen would adequately explain a delayed or elevated sugar tolerance curve and apparent refractoriness to insulin. Obviously, such a failure of hepatic glycogenesis

does not necessarily signify any inability to burn carbohydrate. In the third paper of this series we demonstrate by means of respiratory quotients determined during the course of the intoxication that diphtheritic rabbits can burn carbohydrate.

The occurrence of severe liver injury during diphtheritic intoxication is by no means unrecognized. Pathologically this was noted many years ago by Babes (8), Welch and Flexner (9). Fahr (10), and others. Histologically, the lesion consists essentially of varying degrees of necrosis in the region of the central vein. From our own experience in examining numerous sections of liver obtained from diphtheritic animals, this has been the most constant and striking pathological finding. In many cases the destruction was so extensive that very little normal hepatic tissue could be seen.

It may be pertinent, in this connection, to point out the striking similarity which exists, as far as evidence of disturbance in carbohydrate metabolism is concerned between diphtheritic intoxication and other conditions in which liver injury is the principal pathological finding, namely, phosphorus, chloroform and hydrazine poisoning and yellow fever. In these conditions there have been demonstrated hypoglycemia, diabetic-like sugar tolerance curves marked reduction in liver glycogen and increases in blood amino-acid nitrogen (11)

SUMMARY

- 1 The liver glycogen of fasted rabbits injected intravenously with diphtheria toxin is definitely diminished in comparison with that of controls subjected to similar periods of fasting. Under these conditions no significant difference was noted in the concentration of glycogen in heart and muscle of diphtheritic and control rabbits.
- 2 A marked diminution in hepatic glycogenesis following the intravenous injection of glucose was noted in diphtheritic rabbits. The injection of insulin along with the glucose did not alter hepatic glycogenesis
- 3 The concentrations of heart glycogen of normal and diphtheritic rabbits following the injection of glucose with and without insulin, showed no significant differences
- 4. It is pointed out that the destruction of liver parenchyma demon strated anatomically in diphtheritic intoxication is accompanied by a failure of hepatic glycogenesis which is responsible for some of the disturb ances in carbohydrate metabolism described in this condition

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PHYSIOLOGICAL DISTURBANCES DURING EXPERIMENTAL DIPHTHERITIC INTOXICATION III RESPIRATORY OUOTIENTS AND METABOLIC RATE:

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Previous investigators have demonstrated disturbances of carbohydrate metabolism during both clinical and experimental diphtheritic intoxication These disturbances are made manifest by delayed sugar tolerance curves, high blood sugar values, and, occasionally, glycosuria These observations have led to the assumption on the part of many that, during the course of diphtheria, there exists a relative insulin deficiency or dysfunction, a detailed review of this phase of the literature is given in Paper I of this In the two preceding papers of this series (1, 7) we have dem onstrated by histological and chemical studies, a widespread destruction of liver parenchyma with derangement of liver function following the intravenous injection of diphtheria toxin in rabbits. Physiologically, this manifested itself by varying degrees of disturbance in hepatic glyconeogenesis and hepatic glycogenesis. The belief was expressed that the above mentioned disturbances in carbohydrate metabolism could be related to the hepatic injury. In the following communication are reported the results of a study of the respiratory quotients in rabbits, aimed to determine what effect, if any, diphtheritic intoxication has upon their ability to burn carbohydrates

METHOD

The apparatus used for the determination of respiratory quotients was de scribed by Marine (2) in 1922 and is based on the Haldane open-circuit system It was adequately tested before the experiments were begun for proper absorption of carbon dioxide and water and for air tight connections

Rabbits in good condition, and weighing from 900 to 1400 grams were employed for the investigation. Both control and diphtheritic animals were deprived of food 24 hours before the onset of the experiment. Starvation was maintained throughout the balance of the experiment only water being offered. The diphtheria toxin used was of a strength such that 0.016 cc. was equivalent to 1 minimal lethal dose of toxin. Three quarters to 1 minimal lethal dose was injected intravenously. It was previously found that this dose would bring about the death of the fasted minimals in from three to seven days. The animals

¹ This work was aided by a grant from The Corn Products Refining Company

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TABLE II

Average respiratory quotients obtained in normal and diphtheritic rabbits after different periods of fasting

| Hours of | Dipht | Díphtheritic | | mal |
|------------|------------------------------|------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------|
| starvation | Average respiratory quotient | Number of observations | Average respira tory quotient | Number of observations |
| 24 | 81 | 4 | 84 | 3 |
| 48 | 80 | 4 | 82 | 4 |
| 72 | 1 78 | 3 | 76 | 4 |
| 96 | 80 | 2 | 76 | 5 |
| 120+ | 78 | 2 | 73 | 1 |

to make the values express surface area in the ordinary units The omission of this procedure still allows comparison of the various animals in terms analogous to those which would be obtained with a more exact formula for surface area

The respiratory quotients determined during the course of the intoxication do not suggest any gross interference with the burning of carbo hydrates. It can be seen that after the development of a fasting status the respiratory quotients tend to remain with only slight exceptions at a fairly constant level, which averages between 78 and 80, a level well above that to be expected had there been any severe degree of insulin dys function.

In Table II the respiratory quotients obtained on the diphtheritic unimals after similar periods of fasting have been averaged and compared with those obtained on the normal controls. The lack of any striking difference between the two sets of values is apparent.

It might be mentioned in passing, that no great change was noted in the total metabolic rate as the intoxication progressed. In other words diphtheria toxin when injected into rabbits does not exhibit any calorigenic activity

DISCUSSION

Essentially the same approach for the investigation of the disturbance in carbohydrate metabolism during diphtheria has been utilized previously by Josephs (3), Hector (4) and Arloing and Laulanie (5)

Josephs determined the respiratory quotients in dogs by collection of the expired air over periods of from three to five minutes, followed by analysis of a sample in a Haldane gas apparatus. The results of four experiments were described. From the data presented it is evident that there was no difficulty in the oxidation of carbohydrates the nonprotein respiratory quotients remaining about 0.80 throughout the course of the investigation. The dogs were subjected to only a mild degree of intoxication as evidenced by the relatively low blood nonprotein introgen levels and the prolonged periods of survival

Arloing and Laulanie in 1895 studied the respiratory exchange by means of closed calorimetry in rabbits following the injection of large doses of toxin subcutaneously (death occurred in from 6 to 36 hours). Because of the overwhelming nature of the intoxication it is difficult to interpret the results. Furthermore there was no suitable dietary control previous to the experiment. Respiratory quotients ranging from 0.90 to 0.70 were obtained. A tendency for a slight rise to occur during the first six to eight hours following the injection of toxin was noted.

Hector in 1926 studied the respiratory quotients in six cases of diphtheria of varying degrees of severity, using a Fridericia apparatus. He determined the respiratory quotient at frequent intervals following the administration of glucose by mouth. From his results he concluded that there was no evidence of any inability to oxidize carbohydrates during the course of diphtheria.

J A Johnston (6) has recently acquainted us with data similar to Hector's, on a diphtheria patient with severe myocardial involvement. The observations, made on the 22d day of the disease, showed that the respiratory quotients following the intravenous administration of 20 grams of glucose rose from the pre-injection level of 0.84 to 0.90 at one hour and fell to 0.85 and 0.77 at the second and third hours respectively. Comparing this with similar studies on normal children, Johnston interprets these results to signify an adequate response to the injected glucose. These observations were made too late in the disease to be strictly comparable to our experimental results. Similar studies, both early and late in the disease, would be valuable, especially if accompanied by observations of the blood nonprotein nitrogen, which seems to be the best objective measure of the severity of the intoxication.

In Paper IV of this series (8), the results of the investigation of the serum electrolytes during diphtheritic intoxication in rabbits will be presented. These studies demonstrate the frequent occurrence of a decrease in serum bicarbonate, chloride and sodium. It is apparent that the development of acidosis while in the respiratory chamber would increase the respiratory quotient. However, it is not likely that any marked change occurred during the relatively short period of observation. Furthermore, it is unlikely that low respiratory quotients were so masked by developing acidosis as to bring about the substantial agreement in the respiratory quotients found in our experiments.

The criticism which may be made of the work reviewed above, as well as of our experiments, is that by this type of investigation one can adequately demonstrate only severe grades of interference with carbohydrate oxidation. The failure to find any evidence of this disability would, therefore, not preclude minor degrees of insulin insufficiency or dysfunction. We believe this to be a just criticism and have duly considered it in framing our conclusions.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

- 1 Study of the respiratory quotients of rabbits during the course of diphtheritic intoxication produced by the intravenous injection of diphtheria toxin reveals no evidence of any gross disturbance in the oxidation of carbohydrates
- 2 It was not possible to demonstrate any significant changes in the total metabolic rate during the course of the intoxication

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STUDIES OF TOTAL PULMONARY CAPACITY AND ITS SUB-DIVISIONS I NORMAL ABSOLUTE AND RELATIVE VALUES

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(Received for publication April 7, 1933)

In the investigation of the symptom, dyspined by physiological methods studies of the pulmonary mechanisms have lagged behind those of other mechanisms involved. In most clinics the measurement of the vital capacity is frequently made, but rarely in conjunction with measurements of total pulmonary air and its subdivisions. No complete understanding of the problem can be attained without a complete study of the functions of the lungs in addition to those of the blood and the circulatory organs. The studies to be reported here were commenced as a preliminary to an investigation of the functional disability caused by various types of fibrosis of the lungs, particularly the pneumonoconioses. At the outset it was discovered that data regarding lung capacity were available in only a small number of normal individuals, so small that no standards of normality could be established for comparison with measurements to be made in pathological conditions.

We will not attempt to make a historical review of the methods used in the determination of the lung volume and its subdivisions. A complete presentation of the subject, from this point of view, has been published very recently by Christie (4). We may mention that probably three factors have largely been responsible for hesitancy in accepting this procedure as a useful tool in clinical medicine unreliability of the methods used, difficulty of using complicated methods in dealing with very sick patients, and finally lack of normal standards for comparative purposes. The first two drawbacks have been solved by the methods described by Van Slyke and Binger (12) and lately by Christie (4). The present study was undertaken in an attempt to furnish some information regarding the normal values of the pulmonary air and its subdivisions, to appreciate the character of its variations to establish a method which will permit the prediction of normal values in a given case and finally to apply the information gained from the normal observations to the study of cases of

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chronic pulmonary pathology In this and subsequent papers we will present our results, together with a consideration of the related literature

NOMENCLATURE

A serious drawback to the proper comparison of different series of observations has been the use of different terms, and even different meanings for the same term. It is therefore essential to adopt a single nomenclature in order to have a clear understanding of the subject. We have adopted for our studies the classification proposed by Christie (4) with the exception of the replacement of the term "functional residual air" by mid capacity. The classification may be briefly summarized as follows.

Residual an is the amount of air remaining in the lungs after fullest possible expiration

Mid capacity is the amount of air remaining in the lungs after a normal expiration. The term "functional residual air" introduced by Lundsgaard and Schierbeck (6), and used by Binger and Brow (3), is synonymous with this term. It appears to be more convenient, however, to use the term mid capacity as being more descriptive and more commonly used. The term "functional residual air" may be easily confused with residual air, or it may suggest that it is a subdivision of the latter. Mid capacity represents the sum of the residual and reserve airs

Vital capacity is the amount of air expired in the fullest possible expiration following the deepest possible inspiration. Vital capacity is the sum of the complementary and reserve volumes

Total capacity of the lungs is the sum of the residual air and the vital capacity

Complementary an is the volume of air inspired from the position of mid capacity to that of the maximum possible inflation. It includes the tidal air

Reserve air is the amount of air expired from the mid capacity position to the maximum possible deflation

The character of this classification may be appreciated more readily in the diagram of Figure 1. Other classifications differ mainly in the definition of the mid capacity. Panum (9), in 1868, regarded this as the volume of air in the lungs at a point mid-way between normal expiration and inspiration. Most investigators have adopted his definition. It seems better, however, to define mid capacity as proposed by Siebeck (11), who took into consideration the commonly accepted finding that the most constant level in any graphic respiratory tracing is found at the end of a normal expiration. (Christic calls this level the "resting respiratory level"). The level at which the mid capacity is placed in the different classifications changes the values given to the complementary and reserve volumes. It will be noted that in the nomenclature adopted for this study the complementary air is the volume of air from the level of normal expiration up to

the limits of complete inspiration (consequently it includes the *tidal air* which is the amount of air moving in and out during quiet breathing). The reserve air is the volume of air between the level of normal expiration and the limits of complete expiration

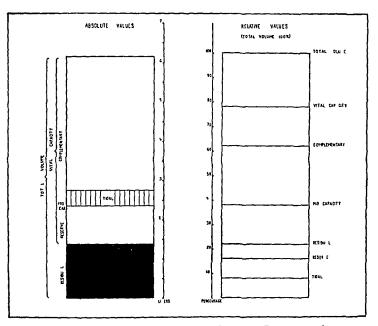


Fig 1 Mean Absolute and Relative Values of Pulmonary Air in 50 Normal Males

METHODS

We have used Christie's method (4) of oxygen dilution without forced breathing. The details of this method have been fully described in this au thor's original description, so we will omit a detailed account. The spirometer employed was of the type described by Van Slyke and Binger (12) of nine liters capacity, provided with a solid core to decrease the dead space with a graduated millimeter scale and a recording pen (each millimeter on the scale being equivalent to a volume of 20 cc.) A five way valve permitted easy and quick communication of the patient with the desired connection. The dead space of the spirometer, including rubber tubing soda lime container etc was calculated according to the instructions given by Christie, and found to be 2600 cc. Care was taken to keep the same level of water in the spirometer by means of a small syphon mounted on a graduated scale. The oxygen used

was analyzed to discover mert gases acting as impurities. Five liters were admitted to the spirometer for each determination. The respiratory tracings were recorded on paper with millimeter rulings, mounted on a hymograph drum From the tracings (the patient being under basal conditions) the basal metabolic rate may be calculated, if desired All our results have been corrected to the volume corresponding to a temperature of 37° C, and complete saturation with water vapor The main defect of this method, as pointed out by Christie, is the difficulty in making an accurate measurement of the oxygen consumption Although in most cases a satisfactory base line is secured, there are cases in which breathing is somewhat irregular, and in consequence only an approximate determination of the oxygen consumption may be obtained The error under these conditions may be considerable. In such cases we have used the following procedure for the determination of the residual air ond spirometer containing about three or four liters of atmospheric air, and provided with a recording pen, is connected by means of a wide and short rubber tube to one of the outlets of the five way valve The kymograph is placed so that a graphic tracing may be obtained from the excursions of this spirome-The subject breathes through the five-way valve to the outside air for one or two minutes. Then he is rapidly connected with this spirometer After three or four breaths, at the beginning of a normal expiration, he is suddenly asked to continue to expire as completely as possible to the level of the maximum deflation, and to hold his breath at this level for just the time (about a second) necessary to turn the valve connection to the regular mixing spirometer containing the measured amount of oxygen Quiet breathing is continued for seven or eight minutes and respirations are recorded on the kymograph to which the recording pen of this spirometer is adjusted as soon as possible after the connection is made. At the end of this period the subject is again suddenly asked to continue as full an expiration as possible and to hold the breath at this level while the connection to the spirometer is quickly closed The oxygen consumption is calculated directly from the graduated scale of the spirometer (from the difference between the level after the known amount of oxygen was added and the level at the end of the determination) The respiratory tracing serves chiefly to detect any possible leakage or gross irregularity It also gives a graphic record of the reserve air when the subject was asked to expire to the residual level at the beginning and end of the determination The degree of the subject's cooperation can thus be readily determined by comparing these tracings, and proper corrections may be introduced, obviating, at least in part, the main error in the direct determination of the A third determination of the reserve air a few minutes later was residual air sometimes used as a further check. A preliminary explanation usually suffices to obtain the desired cooperation The rest of the calculation is made exactly as described by Christie, but of course the result obtained represents the re-This added to the reserve air will give the mid capacity

Our gas analyses have been made in the Van Slyke manometric apparatus (10) This procedure is less time consuming than the use of the Haldane gas analysis apparatus. It has been found to give close agreement in duplicate analyses. All the determinations have been made with subjects in the recumbent position in bed, with two flat pillows for a head rest. In each case two determinations were made one of mid capacity, following strictly Christie's method, and the other by the alternate method of determining the residual air according to the procedure just described. In most cases, when the base line for measurement of the oxygen consumption was satisfactory, a close agree-

ment was found between the volume or the residual air obtained directly and the one calculated by subtracting the reserve volume from that of the mid capacity. The vital capacity, reserve and complementary airs were determined im mediately afterward in the same spirometer without change in the subjects position. After connection was again established with the spirometer, the subject was asked to breathe normally for one or two minutes and then while watching the graphic registration of his breathing he was asked to continue an expiration down to the maximum point of deflation to measure the reserve air After quiet breathing was again resumed for a short time he was asked to continue an inspiration up to the maximum level of inflation thus measuring the complementary air. Finally after a short interval, we obtained a graphic tracing of the fullest possible inspiration followed by the maximum possible expiration (vital capacity). In normal people this vital capacity ought to be equal to the sum of the reserve and complementary volumes determined separately Not infrequently small differences are found, possibly due to lack of cooperation

MATERIAL

Determination of the total pulmonury air and its subdivisions has been made in 50 normal males, varying in age from 18 to 30 years and with a mean age of 23 years. The physical characteristics of these subjects are summarized in Table 1, from which it can readily be appreciated that no

TABLE 1
Physical characteristics of the subjects examined

| | Mean | Standard deviation | Coef ficient of varia tion | Variations |
|---|--|---|---|--|
| Age years Body height cm Body weight, kgm Body surface area cm² Chest circumference cm Chest volume liters Chest index $\frac{Depth}{Wdth} \times 100$ Chest index $\frac{Height}{Wdth} \times 100$ | 22 9 ±0 31* 176 2 ±0 49 72 5 ±1 07 187 8 ±1 19 85 4 ±0 60 10 00±0 19 68 5 ±0 55 70 8 ±0 71 | 3 3 ±0 22* 5 1 ±0 35 11 2 ±0 76 12 5 ±0 84 6 3 ±0 43 2 03±0 14 5 8 ±0 39 7 3 ±0 49 | per cent 14 4 2 9 15 5 6 6 7 3 20 3 8 4 | 18-30 157 6 -186 5 52 8 -104 0 1 52- 2 19 74-110 7 00- 18 33 58 3 - 84 4 |
| Costal angle 6 | 71 8 ±1 18 | 124 ±084 | 17 2 | 50-104 |

^{*} Probable error

selective criteria were used in regard to the bodily appearance. The chest size, as judged from external measurements, also varies within wide limits as well as its shape (as indicated by the variations in the indices of Depth/Width and Height/Width and in the costal angle). This group of normal males although not very large in number, is accordingly representative and may be considered as a fair sample of this age period. The

subjects were students of the School of Medicine and the College for Men of the University of Rochester In all cases a brief history of previous diseases and athletic activities was recorded, and the chest examined clinically and radiologically. The vast majority of the subjects were in nonfasting condition at the time of the determination, but all of them had a preliminary resting period of at least twenty minutes. The total number of observations was fifty-two. We have excluded from this report only two cases in one the value for residual air was found to be a negative quantity for some unknown reason, and in the other case satisfactory cooperation could not be obtained.

TABLE 2

Values of pulmonary capacity from the literature *

Absolute values

| Pulmonary capacity | Mean | Standard deviation | Coefficient of variation | Variations |
|--------------------|--------|-----------------------|--------------------------|------------|
| | liters | liters | per cent | liters |
| Total capacity | 5 98 | 1 12 | 18 7 | 3 25-8 22 |
| Vital capacity | 4 46 | 0 87 | 19 5 | 2 31-5 95 |
| Complementary air | 2 60 | 0 63 | 24 2 | 1 61-3 95 |
| Reserve air | 1 98 | 0 51 | 25 7 | 0 70-2 92 |
| Mid capacity † | 3 70 | 0 66 | 178 | 2 23-5 08 |
| Residual air | 1 50 | 0 33 | 22 0 | 0 87-2 48 |

Relative values (Total capacity = 100 per cent)

| Vital capacity Complementary air Reserve air Mid capacity Residual air | per cent 75 1 40 6 30 0 60 7 25 3 | per cent 4 2 4 9 6 2 4 0 4 3 | per cent 5 6 12 0 20 6 6 6 17 0 | per cent 60-84 26-48 15-40 52-69 16-40 |
|--|--|------------------------------|---------------------------------|---|
|--|--|------------------------------|---------------------------------|---|

Relative values (Vital capacity = 100 per cent)

| Complementary air Reserve air | per cent 56 7 44 0 | per cent 59 59 | per cent 10 4 13 4 | per cent 44-69 31-56 |
|---|--------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|
| Reserve air Mid capacity Residual air | 81 2 34 2 | 87 110 | 10 7 32 1 | 63-97 19-66 |

^{*}Summary of 46 determinations made on male subjects collected from Lundsgaard and Van Slyke (7), Lundsgaard and Schierbeck (6), Binger (2) and Anthony (1)

† Volume of air in the lungs mid-way between a normal expiration and inspiration

Normal values given in the literature

Records of normal values for the total capacity and its subdivisions are few, and it is difficult to evaluate them since the observations were made

with different techniques and under varying conditions. Information about the age and physical characteristics of the people examined was usually meager. Frequently values obtained in males and females have been combined so that it is difficult to separate the results according to sex. We have summarized in Table 2 all the determinations made on normal males since Lundsgaard and Van Slyke (7) reported 11 observations in 1918. No attempt has been made to include earlier data, since the methods used are open to question. We have include 11 cases of Lundsgaard and Van Slyke 19 cases of Lundsgaard and Schierbeck (6) the largest series in the literature 7 cases reported by Binger (2) and finally 9 cases from Anthony's report (1), making a total of 46 cases. The determinations have been made either standing or sitting up, and the classification used by the authors quoted places the mid capacity halfway between normal expiration and inspiration. In 11 cases, of the 19 reported by Lundsgaard and Schierbeck, we have found that the reported value of mid capacity is equal to the sum of the residual air and half the vital capacity, evidence that different criteria have been used in the calculation of that subdivision. From the series of Anthony we have included only the values reported for residual air. Table 2 has been arranged to present the summary of these data in absolute values for the different components of the total capacity, as well as their proportional relationship to the total volume and vital capacity. Comparison of results obtained from the literature with our findings is made elsewhere in this paper.

RESULTS

In Table 3 are summarized the determinations of the total pulmonary air and its subdivisions, indicating the mean values the deviations from the mean and the extreme variations. The observed values are given, and relative values are expressed as percentages of the total volume and vital capacity.

Absolute values observed The mean value of the total capacity in this series is 6.13 ± 0.08 liters, a figure very close to that of 5.98 liters, which is the corresponding mean of all the observations collected from the literature There are wide variations from this mean. The standard deviation is 0.82 liter, with a coefficient of variation of 13.3 per cent, indicating that in our series there is a total range of variability of about 27 per cent from the mean value. Similar, and even higher, variability becomes evident from the study of the reported observations in the literature.

from the study of the reported observations in the literature. When we come to the *vital capacity* we also find, as others have found, a wide variation in the absolute values. With a mean value of 4.78 ± 0.06 liters it varies between 3.40 and 5.85 liters, with a total variation of about 25 per cent from the mean. The fact that all our subjects were young males possibly explains the higher mean value we obtained as compared with the one calculated from the observations of other investigators.

TABLE 3

Determinations of pulmonary capacity in 50 healthy males

Absolute values

| Mean | Standard deviation | Coefficient of variation | Variations | |
|---|--|--|--|--|
| liters | lsters | per cent | lsters | |
| 6 13 ± 0 08* | 0 82±0 06 | 13 3 | 4 42-7 86 | |
| 4 78 ±0 06 | 0 59 ±0 04 | 123 | 3 40-5 85 | |
| 3 79 ±0 05 | 0 52 ±0 04 | 13 7 | 2 41-4 93 | |
| 0 98土0 02 | 0.26 ± 0.02 | 26 5 | 0 26-1 58 | |
| 2 34 土 0 05 | 0 49±0 03 | 209 | 1 09-3 38 | |
| 1 36±0 04 | 0 38±0 03 | 27 9 | 0 81–2 16 | |
| Relative values (Total capacity = 100 per cent) | | | | |
| per cent | per cent | per cent | per cent | |
| 78 0±0 41 | 43±029 | 5 5 | 68 4-85 5 | |
| 61 9±0 51 | 53±036 | 8.5 | 51 7-78 9 | |
| 16 2±0 39 | 41±028 | 25 3 | 5 0-30 3 | |
| 37 9±0 75 | 79 ± 0.53 | | 21 0-50 3 | |
| 22 0±0 41 | 43±029 | 19 5 | 14 5–31 6 | |
| Relative values (Vital capacity = 100 per cent) | | | | |
| per cent | per cent | per cent | per cent | |
| 79 4±0 50 | 5 2±0 35 | 6.5 | 63 1-94 1 | |
| 20 6±0 52 | 54±036 | 26 2 | 5 9-36 9 | |
| 491±085 | 89±060 | 18 1 | 25 0-70 4 | |
| 28 2±0 70 | 7 3 ± 0 49 | 25 8 | 16 9-46 0 | |
| | liters 6 13±0 08* 4 78±0 06 3 79±0 05 0 98±0 02 2 34±0 05 1 36±0 04 lues (Total capace per cent 78 0±0 41 61 9±0 51 16 2±0 39 37 9±0 75 22 0±0 41 ues (Vital capace per cent 79 4±0 50 20 6±0 52 49 1±0 85 | liters liters liters 6 13±0 08* 0 82±0 06 4 78±0 06 0 59±0 04 3 79±0 05 0 52±0 04 0 98±0 02 0 26±0 02 2 34±0 05 0 49±0 03 1 36±0 04 0 38±0 03 liters liters per cent per cent 78 0±0 41 4 3±0 29 61 9±0 51 5 3±0 36 16 2±0 39 4 1±0 28 37 9±0 75 7 9±0 53 22 0±0 41 4 3±0 29 liters liters per cent per c | deviation variation liters per cent 6 13 ±0 08* 0 82 ±0 06 13 3 4 78 ±0 06 0 59 ±0 04 12 3 3 79 ±0 05 0 52 ±0 04 13 7 0 98 ±0 02 0 26 ±0 02 26 5 2 34 ±0 05 0 49 ±0 03 20 9 1 36 ±0 04 0 38 ±0 03 27 9 dues (Total capacity = 100 per cent) per cent per cent 78 0 ±0 41 4 3 ±0 29 5 5 61 9 ±0 51 5 3 ±0 36 8 5 16 2 ±0 39 4 1 ±0 28 25 3 37 9 ±0 75 7 9 ±0 53 20 6 22 0 ±0 41 4 3 ±0 29 19 5 19 5 | |

^{*} Probable error

The mid capacity also shows wide fluctuations. It varies between 1 09 and 3 38 liters, with a mean value of 2.34 ± 0.05 liters. It shows a total variation of about 42 per cent from the mean. Our results cannot be compared with those reported by other investigators on account of the difference in classification used. Binger and Brow (3) in nine determinations of the mid capacity (called "functional residual air" in their report), which was measured in a manner analogous to ours, obtained, however, an average value of 2 43 liters in very close agreement with the mean value of this series

The volume of residual air varies markedly. Its lowest and highest values in our series are 0.81 and 2.16 liters and the mean value is 1.36 \pm 0.04 liter, a figure slightly lower than 1.50 liter which is the mean value of the cases previously reported

The complementary and reserve volumes show marked deviations from the corresponding mean values, especially the latter. The diagram of Figure 1 illustrates graphically the mean values obtained for the total capacity and its subdivisions

Relative values It has been customary to express the values of the lung volume subdivisions as percentages of the total capacity. This is the more valuable method of expressing the results, as one may readily see from an inspection of the diagram of Figure 2. The vital capacity mid

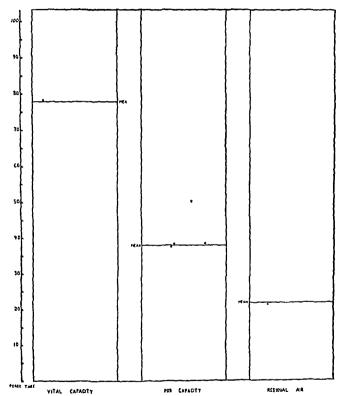


Fig 2 Vital Capacity Mid Capacity and Residual Air Expressed in Percentage of the Total Capacity

The dots indicate 50 individual observations grouped about the mean values

capacity and residual air constitute more or less constant fractions of the total capacity in normal people, giving a sound basis for comparison with the possible variations of these ratios in pathological subjects. In the case of the vital capacity we find that it has a mean value representing 780

 \pm 0.41 per cent of the total volume. The standard deviation is only 4.3 per cent, so all variations actually come within 12 per cent of that mean value. It appears to indicate a rather constant relationship of vital capacity to residual air in constituting the total lung capacity. It is significant to find that the same ratio (Vital capacity/Total capacity) \times 100 calculated from the cases reported in the literature has a mean value of 75.1 per cent, with a standard deviation of 4.2 per cent, that is a similar range of variability as found in our series. There is only one case (from the series of Lundsgaard and Van Slyke) in which this ratio was lower than 69 per cent

The residual air, expressed in percentage of the total capacity, varied in our series from 14 to 31 per cent, with a mean value of 220 ± 041 per cent. In 96 per cent of the cases it formed from 15 to 30 per cent of the total volume. The data in Table 4 show that the residual air varies more

TABLE 4
Comparison of residual air, vital capacity and total capacity

| Ratio Residual air Total capacity × 100 | Residual air | Vital capacity | Total capacity |
|---|--------------|----------------|----------------|
| per cent | liters | liters | liters |
| 14-16 | 0 90 | 4 80 | 5 71 |
| 17 | 1 13 | 4 79 | 5 91 |
| 20 | 1 28 | 4 74 | 6 02 |
| 23 | 1 53 | 4 92 | 6 45 |
| 26 | 1 68 | 4 68 | 6 36 |
| 29 | 1 96 | 4 26 | 6 22 |
| | | | |

Correlation coefficients

| Ratio Residual air and residual air | +0 8740±0 0229* |
|--|----------------------------------|
| Idem and vital capacity Idem and total capacity | +0 0164±0 0971 +0 3898±0 0823 |

^{*} Probable error

than the vital capacity From the cases reported in the literature we obtained a mean value of 25 3 per cent in the ratio (Residual air/Total capacity) \times 100, and in the recent series of Anthony (1) the average of eight determinations (also made in the recumbent position) was 23 2 per cent

The ratio (Mid capacity/Total capacity) \times 100 has a mean value of 379 ± 0.75 per cent and a standard deviation of 79 per cent. In 96 per cent of the cases a ratio was between 30 and 50 per cent. The complementary and reserve airs, expressed as percentage of the total volume, show moderate variations in the case of the former, and very wide fluctuations in the percentage of the latter. The close correlation of the total capacity with the vital capacity, mid capacity and residual air may also be appreciated from the high and significant correlation coefficients calculated in our series and presented in Table 5

TALE 5 Correlation between the different subdivisions

| Capacities con lated | Correlation coefficient |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| Total capacity and vital capacity | +0 8950±0 0188* |
| Total capacity and complementary air | $+0.7889\pm0.0361$ |
| Total capacity and reserve air | $+0.4171\pm0.0782$ |
| Total capacity and mid capacity | $+0.8020\pm0.0337$ |
| Total capacity and residual air | $+0.7721\pm0.0384$ |
| Vital capacity and complementary air | $+0.8836\pm0.0209$ |
| Vital capacity and reserve air | +0 4347 ±0 0769 |
| Vital capacity and mid capacity | +0 5748±0 0634 |
| Vital capacity and residual air | $+0.4571\pm0.0748$ |
| Complementary air and mid capacity | 十0 3296±0 0850 |
| Complementary air and reserve air | $+0.0195\pm0.0951$ |
| (omplementary air and residual air | $+0.4731\pm0.0735$ |
| Iid capacity and reserve air | $+0.6191\pm0.0587$ |
| Mid capacity and residual air | $+0.8202\pm0.0310$ |
| Residual air and reserve air | $+0.1491\pm0.0931$ |

^{*} Probable error

2.

Few investigators have expressed the values of the subdivisions of the pulmonary air as a percentage of the vital capacity. There appears to be no special advantage in doing so, and perhaps it will be more convenient and simpler to use the total capacity as a basis for percentage estimations, rather than the vital capacity. In interesting to notice the rather constant relationship between complementary air and vital capacity, the former constituting about 80 per cent of the latter

Origen consumption and its relationship with ventilation per minute and vital capacity Efforts have been made by different investigators to correlate the oxygen consumption of the body with the ventilation in a given period of time in the hope of finding fixed ratios for normal people and possible devirtions in pathological conditions Knipping and Moncrieff (5) have investigated the so called "ventilation equivalent for oxygen' which may be calculated according to the formula (Minute volume respiration/O, used per minute) × 100 They report observations in 54 normal subjects (31 males and 23 females) and obtained an average value of 244 liters for this ratio, with variations ranging between 168 and 370 In 19 cases of heart disease the results varied between 21 and 861 liters Close examination of their findings does not indicate any value in such a ratio as a measure of respiratory efficiency In 15 of our subjects in whom the determination of total capacity was done under basal conditions (rest and fasting) the calculation of that ratio gives an average of 2 66 with variations between 1 47 and 4 04 The coefficient of variation is very high and the correlation coefficient between oxygen consumption and ventilation per minute is not significant. Anthony (1) has found in normal subjects a close correlation between the vital capacity and the calories utilized per 24 hours. In the 15 cases already mentioned we obtained a very high coefficient of variation in the ratio (Vital capacity/O consump

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STUDIES OF TOTAL PULMONARY CAPACITY AND ITS SUB-DIVISIONS II CORRELATION WITH PHYSICAL AND RADIOLOGICAL MEASUREMENTS

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(Received for publication April 7 1933)

In a previous paper (5) we have presented the results of 50 determinations of pulmonary capacity made in an equal number of healthy males It was demonstrated that the relative capacities (expressed in percentages of the total volume) fluctuated within narrow limits, but that there were wide variations in the absolute figures found for the total volume and its This fact makes rather difficult the recognition of moderate and perhaps important, deviations in a given case and also prevents a clear understanding of any alterations in the relative values Thus a low ratio (Vital capacity/Total volume) × 100 may be caused by either increased residual air, low vital capacity, or a combination of both factors and the proper interpretation will be obtained only if normal values are available To standardize the procedure it appears to be necessary for comparison to find a correlation between the pulmonary capacity and certain bodily characteristics, so that from a knowledge of the latter it may be possible to predict the normal volumes If we have at our disposal reliable criteria to permit judgment of changes in absolute as well as in relative pulmonary capacity a clearer view of the underlying pathological physiology may be obtained A basis may also be provided for the proper classification and grouping of cases of respiratory inefficiency in which defective alveolar ventilation is an important factor

Although numerous investigations have been made to correlate the vital capacity to body or chest measurements there have been very few attempts to correlate these characteristics with the total pulmonary capacity or with any one of its subdivisions, other than vital capacity Lundsgaard and Van Slyke (7) in 1918 found in a few cases a definite correlation between the total capacity vital capacity mid capacity and residual air, and the so called "chest volume," calculated from the external measurement of the three diameters of the chest obtained at the end of full inspiration and expiration under resting conditions This investigation was later confirmed by Lunds gaard and Schierbeck (6) who found a similar relationship and also con-

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cluded that the degree of chest expansion (as determined by external measurements) affects the prediction of the corresponding pulmonary ca-But Binger and Brow (2) could not demonstrate such a correlation of pulmonary capacities, either with the external chest measurements, with the body height, or with the surface area, and suggested that the level of the diaphragm was the determining factor, since a long-chested type of individual with relaxed abdominal walls shows a greater total volume than the broad, deep-chested muscular type These investigators stated that the measurement of the area of the lung fields on radiographic films gives a fairly satisfactory means for predicting pulmonary capacity in normal individuals, although they did not prove so in the pneumonic patients whom they were then investigating No data were presented in their communication to support this conclusion Binger (1), while studying cases of cardiac decompensation, predicted the normal pulmonary capacity by assuming a vital capacity of 25 liters per square meter of body surface, and from this the other volumes were calculated on the basis of the rather fixed relative values of the main subdivisions of the total volume

We have made in our 50 cases a statistical study of the possible correlations of the pulmonary capacities with dimensions of the body and chest, and with radiological measurements. It was also our aim in this study to gain helpful information concerning the comparative value of the methods for the determination of the degree of chest expansion, a factor seldom properly evalulated clinically but undoubtedly of importance in a consideration of respiratory mechanics. To find the influence of the shape of the chest on the different subdivisions of pulmonary capacity was another purpose of the investigation.

METHODS

The body height and weight were recorded in all cases, and the surface area calculated from the DuBois charts. The following chest measurements were obtained in all subjects (without clothing) in the respiratory positions of full expiration, mid capacity (at the end of a normal expiration), and on full inspiration (a) Chest circumference—measured at the level of the nipple line, just below the pectoral prominences, (b) Lateral diameter (width), the distance between the midaxillary lines at the level of the nipple, (c) Anteroposterior diameter (depth), the distance from the midsternal line, also at the level of the nipples, to the vertebral column, and (d) Longitudinal diameter (height), a distance from the upper end of the sternum, at the mid-line, to the junction of the body with the xiphoid process of this same bone. A pair of calipers (pelvimeter) was used in making the measurements

The external "chest volume" in the three respiratory positions was calculated (according to the Lundsgaard and Van Slyke technique) from the product of the diameters at the corresponding positions

Radiographs of the chest were obtained at the end of maximum expiration maximum inspiration, normal expiration and, in most instances. at the end of normal inspiration. These four exposures were obtained on two films in the following manner one of the films was first exposed at the end of maximum expiration, the exposure time being about threequarters of that in routine radiography of the chest A brass filter, 02 mm in thickness, was then placed over the chest at the level of the diaphragms, and a second exposure of the same length and character was made on the same film at the end of maximum inspiration when developed shows the bony thorax and the diaphragm at both phases of respiration The object in using the brass filter is to prevent overexposure of the chest particularly of the diaphragm, during the second portion of the exposure. Much this same effect can be obtained without the use of the brass filter by making the length of exposure at expiration approximately five times that at inspiration We found it more convenient to use the filter and at the same time obtained better definition of the upper portion of the thorax on inspiration The principles of this technique have been explained by Thomas (1931) (8)

It is of the greatest importance that both exposures be made at the proper phase of respiration, i.e. after maximal effort, since the data obtained are used for the prediction of normal pulmonary capacity. We have found it convenient to use a signal (movement of fingers of one of the patient's hands) for timing the exposures

The second film was obtained in a similar manner, varying only the phase of respiration for the exposures to normal expiration and normal inspiration. It is extremely important that the exposure for expiration be made first, reversal of the order results in obliterating the shadow of the diaphragm at expiration.

The films were obtained in the recumbent position. The individual was placed in the prone position on a table, the top of which had been modified to accommodate a tunnel in which the film cassette could be slipped without altering the position of the subject. The target film distance was six feet. The exposure time was approximately 1/20 second. The kilovoltage was varied according to the thickness of the chest. The milliam-perage remained constant at 200 milliamperes.

Films obtained in this manner show the degree of expansion of the thorax and of the excursion of the diaphragm during maximal and quiet respiration. Because of the fact that such films do not impart any idea of the third dimension lateral films were tried during the early portion of the work in an attempt to define the anteroposterior diameter. The use of these were abandoned because of the difficulty in obtaining two photographic impressions of the upper portion of the chest on the same film

In determining the size of the chest two linear dimensions of the chest were used the transverse diameter and the height of the lung field (above

the level of the domes of the diaphragm) The transverse diameter was obtained at the level of the 9th interspace posteriorly, the measurement being taken from the inner aspects of the ribs. The height of the lung fields was determined by measuring the vertical distance from the dome of the diaphragm to the plane of the first rib (EF expiration and GH inspiration, Figure 1)

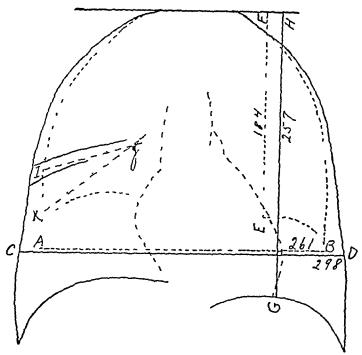


Fig 1 Outlines of Radiological Film with Double Exposure Technique (at Maximum Expiration and Inspiration)

Different measurements taken

These linear dimensions impart a very imperfect, or at least an incomplete, idea of the variation in chest size. For this reason a planimeter, which recorded areas accurately up to 900 sq. cm., was constructed. The integrating wheel of this planimeter was approximately 7.5 cm. in diameter, the tracing arm 50 cm. in length, and the fixed arm 62 cm. This instrument was calibrated by cutting circular grooves in a brass plate with diameters ranging from 10 to 40 cm. The areas enclosed by these grooves were computed. The planimeter was calibrated by comparing the readings on the scale after the point of the tracer arm completed the circle in the individual grooves with the respective areas as computed. A graph was plotted from these determinations

With this instrument the areas of the lung fields were determined from the films obtained at the end of maximum and of normal expiration and inspiration. The tracer arm was moved along the following course, the left axilla, left half of the diaphragm, right half of the diaphragm, right axilla, right apex and finally swept across the spine to the starting point at the left apex. The cardiac area, including the great vessels, was also obtained separately. The tracings obtained from films of a normal subject are illustrated in Figure 1. The area of the lung fields at maximum expiration was found to be 342 sq. cm, and at maximum inspiration 571 sq. cm. The difference represents the increase in area during maximal respiratory effort. Similarly, mensuration of the film taken at the end of normal expiration and inspiration yields data concerning the difference in area to be used in measuring reserve, complementary and tidal air, etc.

The extent of motion of the ribs was measured by determining the ingular displacement of ribs during maximum respiratory effort. The 7th rib (posterior portion) was usually selected because it could be seen best in a film taken at maximum expiration and inspiration. Lines were drawn representing the direction of the same rib at expiration and inspiration and the angle between them measured. In the normal subject illus trated, thus angle (IJK) becomes 22°

Because of the curved course of the rib, its direction was determined by the slope of the outer two-thirds of its posterior portion

It was thought that a better approximate value of the size of the chest cavity could be obtained from combined external and radiological measure ments. We have multiplied in all cases the area of the lung fields (the area of the heart included) expressed in square centimeters, by the corresponding anteroposterior diameter (depth) of the chest measured externally in centimeters. The result is designated in this paper as the "radiological chest volume"

CORRELATION OF THE PULMONARY CAPACITY WITH PHYSICAL AND RADIO LOGICAL MEASUREMENTS

The correlation of the total capacity and its main subdivisions with body and chest dimensions and with radiological measurements has been sum marized in Table I — It is convenient to mention that correlation coefficients are significant only when they exceed the probable error multiplied by three and that correlation is proportionally better as coefficients approach the value of I

In regard to the total capacity, we find that the highest correlation is obtained when the 'radiological chest volume' (at maximum inspiration) is used. It is correlated significantly although in a lesser degree with the area of lung fields (also at maximum inspiration) and with the body height. There is no useful correlation between the total pulmonary capacity and external chest measurements, the correlation coefficients are either valueless or very low

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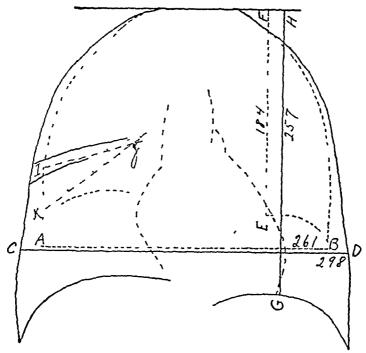


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The vital capacity is also better correlated with the "radiological chest volume" Its correlation of $+0.7174 \pm 0.0467$ is the highest of the

TABLE 1
Correlation of pulmonary capacities with physical and radiological measurements

| Characteristics correlated | Correlation coefficient |
|--|-------------------------|
| Total pulmonary capacity and body weight | -0 1267±0 0944 |
| Total pulmonary capacity and body height | +0 5509±0 0661 |
| Total pulmonary capacity and body surface area | ±0 1644 ±0 0030 |
| Total pulmonary capacity and chest circumference (maximum inspiration) | +0 1370±0 0944 |
| Total pulmonary capacity and chest volume (external) (maximum inspiration) | +0 3271±0 0856 |
| Total pulmonary capacity and area of lung fields (maximum inspiration) | |
| | $+0.5848\pm0.0627$ |
| Total pulmonary capacity and radiological chest volume (maximum inspiration) | +0 6366±0 0566 |
| Vital capacity and body weight | +0 1377 ±0 0930 |
| Vital capacity and body height | $+0.5452\pm0.0667$ |
| Vital capacity and body surface area | $+0.2791\pm0.0876$ |
| Vital capacity and chest circumference (maximum inspiration) | $+0.1591\pm0.0824$ |
| Vital capacity and chest volume (external) (maximum inspiration) | $+0.3741\pm0.0816$ |
| Vital capacity and area of lung fields (maximum inspiration) | 十0 6824 ±0 0509 |
| Vital capacity and radiological chest volume (maximum inspiration) | $+0.7174\pm0.0467$ |
| Mid capacity and chest circumference (mid-position) | -0 2361±0 0897 |
| Mid capacity and chest volume (external) (mid-position) | -0.0554 ± 0.0957 |
| Mid capacity and area of lung fields (mid-position) | $+0.5432\pm0.0674$ |
| Mid capacity and radiological chest volume (mid-position) | +0 4437±0 0769 |
| Residual air and chest circumference (maximum expiration) | -0 0737±0 0944 |
| Residual air and chest volume (external) (maximum expiration) | +0 1065±0 0937 |
| Residual air and area of lung fields (maximum expiration) | $+0.3707\pm0.0823$ |
| Residual air and radiological chest volume (maximum expiration) | +0 3826±0 0809 |
| | |

* Probable error

series, and consequently will be advantageously taken as the basis for the prediction of the normal pulmonary capacity in a given case. It is interesting to observe the almost valueless correlation between the vital capacity and the body surface area, a rather surprising finding as it has been widely accepted in clinics, following the work of West (9) in 1920. He found that this volume is better related to body surface area than to any other physical dimension, normal men having a vital capacity of about 2.5 liters per square meter. From the present observations and from previous experience, we think that there are wide variations in this relationship, it is usually found only when there is a normal balance between height and weight, and is not obtained in subjects who are either over or under weight. This has been so frequently observed in various clinics that it has limited the usefulness of the vital capacity determinations on the basis of body surface area, unless marked alterations are found.

The scatter of our fifty observtions around the lines of correlation when the total capacity, the vital capacity and the different bodily thoracic and radiological measurements are compared, may be appreciated from a study of the Figures 2 and 3. It is plainly evident that the best correlation is

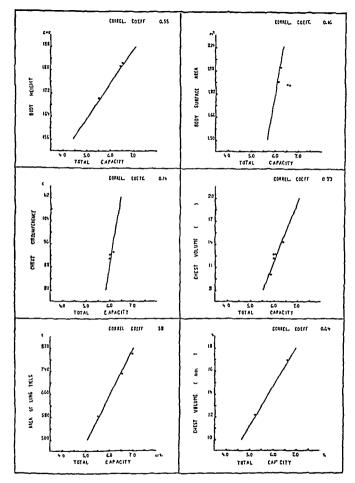


Fig 2 Correlation between the Total Pulmonary Capacity and Physical and Radiological Measurements

Lines represent ideal correlations (from the regression equations) Dots represent individual observations

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| | 4 |
|---|----------------------------------|
| Characteristics correlated | Correlation coefficient |
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| spiration) | 十0 1370 ±0 0944 |
| Total pulmonary capacity and chest volume (external) (maxim inspiration) | num +0 3271±0 0856 |
| Total pulmonary capacity and area of lung fields (maximum inst |) 0 02/1 <u>11</u> 0 0000 |
| tion) | +0 5848±0 0627 |
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| Mid capacity and radiological chest volume (mid-position) | $+0.4437\pm0.0769$ |
| Description and about assessment of the control of | -0.0737 ± 0.0944 |
| Residual air and chest circumference (maximum expiration) | +0 1065±0 0937 |
| Residual air and chest volume (external) (maximum expiration) | , |
| Residual air and area of lung fields (maximum expiration) | +0 3707±0 0823 +0 3826±0 0809 |
| Residual air and radiological chest volume (maximum expiration | 7 70 3020 20 0009 |

* Probable error

series, and consequently will be advantageously taken as the basis for the prediction of the normal pulmonary capacity in a given case. It is interesting to observe the almost valueless correlation between the vital capacity and the body surface area, a rather surprising finding as it has been widely accepted in clinics, following the work of West (9) in 1920. He found that this volume is better related to body surface area than to any other physical dimension, normal men having a vital capacity of about 2.5 liters per square meter. From the present observations and from previous experience, we think that there are wide variations in this relationship, it is usually found only when there is a normal balance between height and weight, and is not obtained in subjects who are either over or under weight. This has been so frequently observed in various clinics that it has limited the usefulness of the vital capacity determinations on the basis of body surface area, unless marked alterations are found.

The scatter of our fifty observtions around the lines of correlation when the total capacity, the vital capacity and the different bodily thoracic and radiological measurements are compared, may be appreciated from a study of the Figures 2 and 3. It is plainly evident that the best correlation is

found in the case of the "radiological volume" and (a) the total capacity (Fig 2) and (b) the vital capacity (Fig 3)

When we come to the mid capacity we find a less perfect correlation with radiological data and a complete lack of relationship with external chest measurements. It is correlated best with the area of lung fields (radiological exposure at the end of a normal expiration), a fact worth taking into account in investigations where this subdivision of total volume is the only one that was determined and where knowing its normal value is desirable. The residual air is in very low correlation with radiological measurements, and in no correlation with external chest measurements

From these observations it appears that we have been unable to confirm the early work of Lundsgaard and Van Slyke, and Lundsgaard and Schierbeck in demonstrating a correlation between the total capacity and its main subdivisions with the "chest volume" calculated from the three external diameters of the chest. This conclusion could have been predicted for it is evident that although the lateral and anteroposterior diameters may represent the dimensions of the chest in these planes the measurement of its height is not identical with the length of the sternum, and cannot indicate the level of the diaphragm, which varies widely from and independently of the sternal length The "chest volume" calculated from these measurements yields consequently a doubtful value of the true volume of the chest Theoretically, it appeared to be a sounder assumption that multiplying the area of the lung fields measured in radiological films and the anteroposterior diameter of the chest, determined externally, would secure a value more accurately representative of the true size of the chest cavity This assumption has been verified, for in this way a better correlation has been found between the volume of the lungs and that of the chest

PREDICTION OF THE NORMAL CAPACITY OF THE LUNGS

It has now been shown that in the total series of correlations between the total pulmonary capacity and its components and the physical and radiological measurements the highest and most significant correlation coefficient has been observed between the vital capacity and the "radiological chest volume". This fact indicates that if the chest volume is known in a given case the vital capacity may be predicted with a fair degree of accuracy by means of the regression formula derived from the correlation coefficient. Other fractions of the total capacity may be inferred from the percentage values which the vital capacity, the mid capacity.

² The regression formula derived from the correlation coefficient between the mid capacity volume and the area of lung fields (also at the same respiratory position) is as follows

Mid capacity (liters) = (area of lung fields in cms × 00042) + 033

³ The regression formula is Vital capacity (liters) = (radiological cliest volume (liters) $\times 0.24$) + 1.22

anteroposterior diameters vary widely, it is impossible therefore in a given case to justify the use of these measurements. It may be said in a general way that a circumferential expansion of less than 6 cm is to be considered as reduced. No correlation could be found between pulmonary capacity and chest expansion determined by external measurements.

If on the other hand we measure from radiological films the areas of the lung fields at maximum expiration and inspiration the relation between the two varies within definite limits. The ratio (Area at maximum expiration) > 100 has, in our series, a mean value of 62.2 with a total deviation from the mean of less than 15 per cent. It appears that this ratio may, therefore be used as a means of appreciating the degree of chest expansion. If it is higher than 72.0 we may suspect that a definite reduction in excursion has taken place. This ratio it must be remembered although it tall es into consideration the diaphragmatic and lateral expansion of the chest neglects expansion in the anteroposterior diameter. But since as we have found, the mean values of the lateral and anteroposterior chest expansion are practically the same, the error will be more or less constant. As a matter of fact, we have found, in a group of cases of chronic pulmonary disease this similarity of expansion in the two planes.

The ratio (Area at maximum expiration/Area at maximum inspiration) × 100 is higher in people with a long narrow chest, and is chiefly altered by changes in the diaphraginatic excursion. It is interesting to find a relationship between this ratio and the relative values of the pulmonary capac In this series of normal cases the correlation coefficient between the ratios (Area at maximum expiration/Area at maximum inspiration) × 100 and (Residual air/Total volume) × 100 is significant + 0 4015 ± 0 0796 indicating that alterations in one ratio tend to be accompanied by similar and proportional changes in the other. We will show in an other communication that this relationship is considerably more evident in pathological cases in which when expansion is diminished the residual air is high. This relationship between chest expansion and relative pulmonary capacity suggests that correction of the latter is necessary if expansion is diminished. A consequence of correcting such a value may be the neglect of a pathological factor so that a value significantly aftered in fact may appear to be normal. It will be more helpful to have both ratios for the proper interpretation of a case rather than to modify one by means of the other

Additional information concerning clicst expansion may be obtained from a study of other measurements taken from the same radiological film. The diaphragmatic excursion the lateral expansion of the cliest and the degree of movement of the rib although showing considerable normal variations may be considered reduced when they move less than 4 cm. 2 cm and 12° respectively.

SHAPE OF THE CHEST AND LUNG VOLUME

In all of our 50 cases two different indices have been calculated to determine the relationship between the shape of the chest and changes in pulmonary capacity and chest expansion. The index (Depth/Width) × 100 will indicate whether the chest is of the rounded or flat type. There are wide variations in this index from 58 to 84 with a mean value of 68.5 (Table III). In comparing this index with the different absolute and rela-

| Indices | Mean | Standard deviation | Coefficient of | Viritions |
|--|------------|-----------------------|----------------|-----------|
| | (| | per cent | |
| $\frac{\text{Dcpth}}{\text{Width}} \times 100$ | 68 5±0 55* | 5 S±0 39* | 54 | 58 3-84 4 |
| $\frac{\text{Height}^{\dagger}}{\text{Width}}$ × 100 | 708±071 | 73±049 | 10 3 | 50~84 |
| | (| | | l |

TABLE III

Shape of the chest

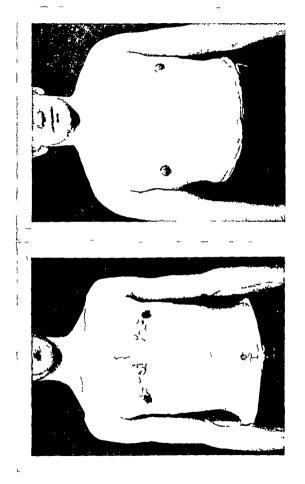
tive volumes, we have not found a significant correlation to indicate that variations in the pulmonary capacity may be attributed to this factor. There was no correlation, either, between this index and the degree of chest expansion, except that the movement of the ribs is less marked when the chest index is high that is to say in rounded chests.

The index (Height/Width) × 100 (both diameters being measured on x-ray films taken at mid capacity distinguishes two types of chest broad, muscular ones with a high diaphragm (hyperstheme type), and slender and long narrow ones with a low diaphragm (asthenic type) the former the index is low and in the latter high. We have found that the shape or type of the chest from this point of view has a definite influence upon the pulmonary capacity, and that this is reflected chiefly in changes in the volume of reserve air. In our series of normal males, it was not an uncommon observation to find a rather low vital capacity (as compared with the calculated value) in the hypersthenic type of individual due to the small volume of reserve air The correlation coefficient between (Height, Width) \times 100 and the reserve air was +04133the index = 0.0803 which is significant. In the three cases in which the lowest indices were obtained (50-52 and 58) the observed reserve air was 0.26, 0 50 and 0 38 liters respectively

The radiological chest volume was considerably larger in those individuals with long narrow chests and low diaphragms. They exhibited correspondingly the highest total pulmonary capacity. This fact stands in

^{*} Probable error

[†] This measurement represents the average height of both sides of the diaphragm (at mid capacity) as determined on the radiological films



The lutter has a smaller total volume and a marked decrease in the volume of reserve air as compared with asthemic chest. The diaphragmatic level is much higher in the hypersthemic chest. Tic 5 Astuenic (Left) and Hapersthenic Types of Chest the asthenic chest

sharp contrast with what one might judge clinically, because men with broad muscular and apparently big chest cavities are regarded as hiving greater pulmonary volumes compared with the other type. The reverse is, however, the case, indicating the importance of taking into consideration the diaphragmatic level in calculating the pulmonary capacity in a given case.

Comparing the chest expansion in hypersthenic individuals (broad muscular chests with high diaphragms) we did not find any significant relationship between this and the ratio (Area at maximum expiration/Area at maximum inspiration) × 100 and the diaphragmatic excursion. There was however, almost no lateral expansion of the chest during the determination of the reserve air (a forced expiration from the mid capacity level) in contrast with other cases in which an appreciable expansion was noticed and measured.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In a preceding paper (5) have been presented the values of pulmonary capacity found in observations made on 50 healthy males. In the present communication we have discussed the correlation between the total capacity and its main subdivisions with height weight, surface area and external and radiological measurements of the thorax. It has been shown that they may be best calculated in a given case from the so-called "radiological chest volume". The method of calculation has been fully presented, comparison of the observed and the calculated volumes shows a very close correspondence. The application of these observations permits one to appreciate pathological deviations.

Studies have been made of the normal variability in the degree of expansion of the chest, which is best exhibited in measurements of the chest film taken by means of a standard the technique which has been described. The same film, together with the measurement of the anteroposterior diameter of the chest at maximum inspiration furnishes all necessary information for the calculation of a given pulmonary capacity if correlation coefficients and regression formulae are used

The influence of the shape of the chest on the pulmonary capacity and on the degree of expansion of the chest has also been investigated

The observations presented lead to the following conclusions

1 When the total pulmonary capacity and its main subdivisions are calculated on the basis of the 'radiological chest volume" at maximum inspiration the following deviations in the observed values (as compared with the calculated ones) are considered to be significant a difference of over 15 per cent in the total pulmonary capacity and vital capacity, and of 30 per cent and 40 per cent in the mid capacity and residual air respectively

2 It the ratio (Area at maximum expiration) Area at maximum inspiration) \times 100 is higher than 720 a reduction in chest expansion is

indicated Further evidence of deficient expansion is obtained if the disphragmatic excursion the lateral expansion and the degree of movement of the rib are found to be less than 4 cm 2 cm and 12° respectively

- 3 There is a certain correlation between the degree of chest expansion (as appreciated by the ratio mentioned) and the relative proportions of subdivisions of the pulmonary expansion. Deficient expansion tends to be accompanied by a higher percentage of the residual air in relation to the total expects.
- 4 There is a relationship between the shape of the chest and the capacity of the lungs. Individuals with broad muscular chests and high diaphragms (hypersthenic type) usually present low volumes of reserve an as compared with long and narrow chested individuals with low diaphragms (asthenic type). The latter have larger thoracic capacity and consequently larger pulmonary capacity.
- 5 From the observations made on normal males at as possible to de tect pathological changes in the absolute and relative pulmonary capacity in a given case. The importance of recognizing such alterations is obvious

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STUDIES OF 1 OTAL PULMONARY CAPACITY AND ITS SUB-DIVISIONS III CHANGLS WITH BODY POSTURE

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(Received for publication April 7 1933)

It has been known for many years that the posture of the body has an influence on pulmonary capacity More than 25 years ago Bohr (3) and Plesch (10) found that the residual air increases in the recumbent position Christie and Beams (6) in 1922 observed a reduction of 55 per cent in the vital capacity in the latter position and Wilson (11) a few years later demonstrated that this is brought about by a marked reduction in the re-Binger and Brow (2) in 1924 found a considerable decrease in the functional residual air (mid capacity) with subjects flat in bed average reduction in nine cases was 0.80 liters. In recent years Anthony (1) reported practically no change in the volume of residual air depending on different positions of the body but confirmed the previous finding that there is marked reduction in the reserve air in the recumbent position and pointed out that the volume of complementary air changes in the opposite direction, it increases on assuming this position. Calloun Cullen and Harrison et al (5) in 1931 found similar influences due to the position of the body on the pulmonary capacity

We have shown in a previous paper (8) that there is a definite correlation between the total capacity and its subdivisions and the size of the chest cavity. It will be interesting therefore to discover whether changes in position are also accompanied by similar and proportional alterations in size and expansion of the chest. Hamilton and Morgan (7) in a recent communication reported that in five normal subjects there was no change in the volume of residual air in the recumbent position but they observed a moderate decrease in the vital capacity, and consequently a corresponding diminution in the total capacity when lying was compared with the sitting posture. These investigators measuring the lateral and anteroposterior diameters of the chest found a moderate increase when the subjects were recumbent, but failed to find consistent changes in the level of the draphragin. From their observations they concluded that the chest cavity was larger when the body is recumbent and that the reduction in total volume

¹ Travelling Fellow of the Rockefeller Foundation

and vital capacity in this posture possibly is brought about by accumulation of blood in the pulmonary circuit

There is evidence in the literature to show that when recumbent there is diminution in the size of the cavity of the chest. Briscoe (4) from careful observations concluded that in this position there is a considerable reduction and that this is affected chiefly by an elevation of the diaphragin, while the lateral and anteroposterior diameters of the chest show very slight increase. Livingstone (9) in 1928 reported that in normal individuals the capacity of the chest is least in the supine posture and that this corresponds with a higher level of the diaphragin and with practically no change in the diameters of the thorax.

To study this matter further, we have made observations of 10 healthy males (average age 23 years) regarding the influence of posture on the capacity of the lungs and the size and expansion of the chest. The determinations of pulmonary capacity in the sitting and recumbent positions were made with a few minutes interval. Radiographs of the chest were obtained at maximum and at normal expiration and inspiration. The methods and technique employed in these observations and the different measurements obtained from the radiographs have already been described (8).

CHANGES IN PULMONARY CAPACITY WITH BODY POSTUKE

The variations found (Table I) are interesting and, in general agree with the work of previous investigators. When subjects assume the recumbent position there is as compared with the sitting posture, a moderate reduction in the total capacity vital capacity, and residual air (the average diminutions are 9.0–6.6 and 14.5 per cent respectively) with more marked changes in the reserve air and mid capacity (28.2 and 41.7 per cent). The only volume which shows an alteration in the opposite direction is the complementary air. Its increase (11.1 per cent) is, however, proportionally lower than the decrease in the reserve air, so that the vital capacity is nevertheless reduced.

In the course of our investigation we also determined the vital capacity of 32 healthy males in the creet and lying positions. The results of these observations closely agree with the corresponding changes found in the ten cases. The average vital capacity in the creet posture was 5.06 liters while in the lying position it was 4.77 liters a difference of 0.29 liters, a reduction of 5.7 per cent.

The alterations in the absolute values of some of the subdivisions on assuming the recumbent posture are of course reflected in their relative values because the total volume is proportionally less altered. There are very slight changes in the ratios. (Vital capacity, Total volume) and (Residual air Total volume) but on the other hand, there are marked reductions in the ratios of reserve air and mid capacity to the total volume.

TABLE 1

Changes in pulmonary capacity according to posture (mean of 10 observations)

| Determinations | Me | Variation | | |
|------------------------------|-------------|-------------|------------|--------|
| Determinations | Sitting | Lying | Turr teron | |
| | liters | liters | per cent | liters |
| Total pulmonary capacity | 6 64±0 18 | 6 04 ±0 19* | -90 | 0 60 |
| Vital exprests | 4 99 ±0 12 | 4 66±0 14 | -66 | 0.33 |
| Complementary air | 3 32 ±0 10 | 3 69±0 12 | +11 1 | 0 37 |
| Reserve air | 168±00/ | 0 98 ±0 06 | -417 | 0 70 |
| Mid capacity | 3 33 ± 0 14 | 2 39 ±0 11 | -28 2 | 0 94 |
| Residual air | 1 65±0 10 | 1 41 ±0 09 | -14 5 | 0 24 |
| Ratios | per cent | per cent | | |
| Vital capacity/Total volume | 75 4±1 1, | 769±101 | +19 | |
| Complementary/Total volume | 49 6±1 15 | 60 8±0 96 | +22 5 | |
| Reserve/Total volume | 25 3±0 83 | 16 2 ± 0 96 | -359 | |
| Mid capacity/Total volume | 499±115 | 39 2 ±0 95 | -214 | |
| Residual/Total volume | 24 5±1 06 | 23 0±1 13 | -61 | |
| Complementary/Vital capacity | 64 8 ± 1 95 | 78 S±1 19 | +215 | |
| Reserve/Vital capacity | 33 5±1 06 | 21 0±1 12 | -37 3 | |
| Mid capacity/Vital capacity | 66 7±2 47 | 51 3±1 78 | -230 | |
| Residual/Vital capacity | 33 1±2 05 | 30 4±1 85 | -81 | |

^{*} Probable error

The complementary air increases and therefore its ratio is increased. The complementary air makes up a bigger part of the vital capacity and the reserve air the other component is correspondingly reduced.

The changes just mentioned in the absolute and relative values of the pulmonary capacity and its subdivisions according to posture indicate the necessity of making all determinations under similar and standard conditions to permit proper comparison. This fact has often been overlooked in the past.

INTI UENCE OF LOSTUPE ON SIZE AND ENLANSION OF THE CHEST

The different measurements obtained from the indiological films taken in the sitting and recumbent postures are summarized in Table II. Considering first the changes occurring in the size of the chest it will be noted that when recumbent the level of the disphragm is distinctly higher, and that this is more marked at mid capacity (after a normal expiration). It is also higher at maximum expiration and inspiration but to a much similer degree. The actual measurements of the height of the right and left sides of the disphragm show that at mid capacity they are 5.6 and 4.1 cm higher than in the sitting position. The higher level attained is slightly more marked in the right disphragm.

Table II
Changes in size and expansion of the chest with body posture
(From radiological observations—mean of 10 cases)

| | Mems | 6 U1 6 | Variations | tions | - 37 | Me | Menns | Viritions | P1101 |
|--|-------------------------------------|---|-----------------------|--------------|--|-------------------------------|---------------------------------------|------------------------|---------------------|
| אני זאווני ווורענ | Sittink | Lymk | | | אובומווג ווופונס | Sitting | եչաւ | | |
| | units | unuts | per cent | spinis | | units | spini | per cent | unds |
| At full expiration—right em left | 18 7±0 56* 20 5±0 53 | 17 1±0 17 19 2±0 51 | 1 8 5 | -16 -13 | Reserve—right om drapmergme left | \$ 0±0 37 3 \$±0 32 | 07 ±0 12 083±011 | -86 0 -78 1 | -13 -297 |
| At mid expresty—right cm | 22 0 ±0 65 23 6 ±0 71 | 17 3±0 13 19 5±3 26 | -24 1 | 1.56 | Complemental—right em | 15±025 24±028 | 6 t ±0 25 6 t ±0 28 | +326 +166 | ++ ++0 |
| At full inspirution—right cm left | 24 8±0 50 26 7±0 50 | 236±046 258±046 | 1 1 3 3 3 | -12 | Total—ru,lit cm | 60±021 61±019 | 65 ±021 66 ±021 | +83 | +0 × 0+ |
| Width of thest Width of thest Will expiration on Mind expecte, on At full fuspiration on | 26 9±0 19 27 6+0 19 30 7±0 29 | 27 3 ± 0 28 28 1 ± 0 31 30 3 ± 0 24 | 1+11 | ++1 0 ++1 | Expansion in chest width Reserve cm Complemental cm Total cm | 07±000 34±019 38±018 | 12 ±0 15 17 ±0 19 30 ±0 18 | +711 -500 -210 | +0 10 10 8 |
| At full expiration on At full expiration on At mid expiration on At full happration on Contact of the At full happration on Contact or At and Particularies of the At full happration on At full happration on At full happration on At full happration on At full happration on At full happration on At full happration on At full happration of At full happr | 128±15 5 555±20 6 671±17 1 | 398±180 430±140 639±167 | -22 4 -22 4 -17 | -125 -32 | Changes in arcas of lung field Reserve cm* Complemental cm Total cm | 110±921 104±821 243±955 | 15 ± 2 75 202 ± 10 1 241 ± 9 39 | -67 8 -91 2 -0 8 | 264 |
| | | 24 51 | 71 | i I | Rib rotation degrees | 20 ∓0 99 | 18 ± 124 | - 10 | - 5 |
| | | | | | Area at maximum Vera at maximum Vera at maximum inspiration | 636±124 | 62 1± 1 11 | -23 | |
| | | | | | | | - | - | |

* Probable croor

It is interesting to see that the lateral drameter of the chest shows a very slight change, less than one centimeter, when the posture is varied from sitting to recumbency. We have not measured the anteroposterior diameter but from other investigations already cited it probably shows no change.

The size of the areas of lung fields shows similar alterations. At mid capacity it is reduced 22.4 per cent. At maximum expiration and inspiration the areas are slightly smaller, although the decrease is only 7.0 and 4.7 per cent respectively.

From these observations it appears that the alterations in the size of the chest are of similar character to the variations in pulmonary capacity We have seen that the volume of mid capacity is most markedly reduced (as compared with the total volume and residual air) and that similar alteration occurs in the radiological area of the lungs at this respiratory position We have found that the decrease in pulmonary capacity is somewhat more marked however than the changes in the radiological area of the lungs. The total volume is reduced 90 per cent, while the area at full inspiration is only 70 per cent smaller. The mid capacity decreases 28.2 per cent while the corresponding area shows a reduction of 22.4 per cent and finally the residual air decreases 14.5 per cent and the area nt maximum expiration has diminished only 47 per cent in size. Does this mean that part of the alveolar space is encroached upon by the increased size of the capillary bed? This explanation may be correct as has often been suggested but it is worth emphasizing that we have not found a marked discrepancy between the changes in pulmonary capacity and chest size

Comparison of the expansion of the chest in the sitting and recumbent positions is interesting. We will consider first the disphragmatic excursion. While recumbent there is a very slight increase in the maximum excursion but the difference is less than a centimeter. The movement of the disphragm during the determination of the reserve air is much decreased. This is evident on both sides although slightly more on the right While sitting the reserve excursion of the right disphragm is 50 cm and of the left 30 cm, and it decreases to 0.7 and 1.0 respectively in recumbency. On the other hand, the 'complemental' disphragmatic excursion (during a forced inspiration starting from the mid capacity) shows a very striking increase in recumbency.

The measurements of the areas of the lungs on a radiograph at different respiratory positions (at maximum expiration and inspiration, and after a normal expiration and inspiration) indicate the changes in the size of these areas during the determination of the several subdivisions of the total volume (vital capacity reserve air complementary and tidal air). By comparing these differences in area in the sitting and recumbent positions we find that in the latter posture there is relatively a small variation in

SUMMALY AND CONCLUSIONS

The effects of posture upon pulmonary capacity and the size and expansion of the chest have been observed in 10 healthy incles by comparing measurements made in the recumbent and sitting postures

It has been found that when recumbent there are slight decreases in the total volume, the vital capacity and the residual air but the reserve air decreases markedly. On the other hand, there is a marked increase in the volume of the complementary air.

Similar and parallel decreases although proportionally less marked have been demonstrated to occur in the size of the chest. This diminution is most marked at mid capacity and it is caused by an upward displacement of the diaphragm.

An analysis of the expansion of the chest in both sitting and recumbent positions shows also parallel changes. In the latter posture, the draphragmatic excursion and the change in the area of the projection of the lungs corresponding to the reserve air are considerably reduced, while the reverse is true in relation to the complementary air.

These observations furnish additional data regarding the close correlation existing between the pulmonary capacity and the size and expansion of the chest and indicate the necessity for adopting a standard posture when investigations of this nature are made

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STUDIES OF TOTAL PULMONARY CAPACITY AND ITS SUB-DIVISIONS IV PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS ON CASES OF PULMONARY EMPHYSEMA AND OF PNEUMOCONIOSIS

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There has been no practical method of estimating in a quantitative way the degree of respiratory inefficiency in cases of chronic pulmonary disease. Although many observations have been made in regard to their under lying pathological anatomy and physiology, there has not been any serious attempt to correlate such observations with the clinical condition especially with respect to adaptation to the increased respiratory demands on physical activity. Investigators have usually been concerned with circulatory and internal respiratory functions. In previous papers (3) (4) we have presented the results of our measurements of capacity of the lungs and of chest expansion in an attempt to establish the normal variation thus enabling one to distinguish pathological deviations. In the present communication are presented similar observations in cases of chronic pulmonary diseases.

METHODS AND CASES STUDIED

A complete description of the methods used in measuring the total pulmonary air and its subdivisions and in the prediction of their normal values in a given case has been discussed in previous papers (3) (4) Measurements of pulmonary ventilation during physical activity have also been made using a modified bicycle ergometer and a 100 liter Tissot spirom eter adapted to the graphic registration of the respirations In some cases arterial blood was obtained and its oxygen saturation and carbon dioxide content determined by the manometric method of Van Slyke (7) We have studied 15 cases, 9 cases of pulmonary emphysema and 6 cases of Several patients presented evidence of heart disease but pneumocomosis no evidence of heart failure was present at the time of these observations In each group there was considerable variation in the extent of pulmonary disease. This was an important consideration as one of the main purposes of this investigation was to correlate the findings with the degree of func tional respiratory disability. A summary of each case is given below

¹ Travelling Fellow of the Rockefeller Foundation

- Case I Male 41 years Chronic cough for 27 years. Severe asthmitte in tacks during the last few years. I are severe dispute on physical activity. No cardine symptoms. Chest markedly emphysematous. Heart normal. Radiograph showed increased linear markings and emphysema. Diagnosis. Chronic bronchitis. Asthma. Pulmonary emphysema.
- Case 2 Vale 54 years Chrome cough and asthmatic attacks for 20 years

 Serve dyspica on physical activity. No cardiac symptoms

 Chest markedly emphysematous. Heart normal. Electrocardiogram normal. Radiograph showed increased linear markings.

 Diagnosis Chrome bronchitis. Asthma. Pulmonary emphysemi.
- Case 3 Male 51 years Chronic cough expectoration and asthmitic it tacks for two years. Severe dyspical on physical activity. No cardiac symptoms.

 Chest very emphysematous. Radiograph showed slight left sided cardiac enlargement and increased lung markings. Electrocardiogram presented evidence of myocardial damage.

 Diagnosis. Chronic bronchitis. Asthma. Pulmonary emphysima. Chronic myocardias. (compensated).
- Case 4 Male 41 years Chronic cough and asthmatic attacks for 18 years Only slight dyspica on physical activity. No cardiac symptoms Chest not emphysematous in appearance. Hyperresonance on percussion over precordial and hepatic areas. Electrocardiogram normal. Radiograph of the chest showed prominence of the lung marking and of the pulmonary artery suggesting early fibrosis and pulmonic arteriosclerosis. Diagnosis. Chronic bronchitis. Asthma. Pulmonary emphysema. Pulmonic arteriosclerosis.
- Case 5 Male 60 years Dry cough for many years Moderate dysping on physical activity. Frequent attacks of precorded pain for two or three years.

 Chest definitely emphysematous in appearance. Heart enlarged to the lett. General arteriosclerosis.
- Diagnosis Arteriosclerotic heart disease Pulmonary empliysems

 Case 6 Vale 26 years Asthmatic attacks since childhood No dyspica on
 physical activity

 Chest not empliysematous Heart normal Radiograph of chest
 showed increased linear markings and evidence of an early empliy

sema Diagnosis Asthma Pulmonary emphysema

- Case 7 Mile 41 years. Attacks of precordial plin for seven years. During the last two years attacks of unconsciousness accompanied with convulsions. No dyspica on exertion.

 Chest markedly emphysematous. Heart enlarged to the left. Radiograph of the lungs showed pulmonary fibrosis and emphysema. Diagnosis. Coronary heart disease. Question of Adams-Stokes syndrome. Pulmonary emphysema.
- Case & Male 50 years Slight dispute on evertion
 Chest does not appear emphysem tous. Heart enlarged to the left
 Electrocardiogram showed left ventricular preponderance and mile
 cardial damage. Radiograph of the chest suggested pulmonars emphysema pleural thickening and cardiac hypertrophy.
 Diagnosis. Arterio-clerotic heart disease. Pulmonary emphysema.

835

- Case 9 Male 61 years Chronic cough for three years Very severe dys pula on physical activity. No cardiac symptoms.

 Chest markedly emphysematous. Heart enlarged to the left. Elec trocardiogram showed an intraventricular conduction defect. Radio graph of the chest revealed a marked degree of emphysema enlargement of the left ventricle and increased linear markings.

 Diagnosis Chronic bronchitis. Arteriosclerotic heart disease. Pul monary emphysema.
- Case 10 Male 48 years Had worked in sand blasting for 6 years. Chronic cough for four years. Server dispined on phissical activity. No car diac symptoms.

 Chest emphysematous Heart not enlarged Electrocardiogram gave questionable evidence of myocardial damage. Radiograph of the chest showed marked increase in linear markings and typical appearance of pneumoconiosis and emphysema at both bases. Diagnosis. Pneumoconiosis. Pulmonary fibrosis.
- Case 11 Male 35 years Had worked at sand blasting for 5 years. Chronic cough for two years. Moderate dispute on exertion. Able to carry on light work. Complains of palpitation on physical activity. Chest did not appear emphysematous. Heart not enlarged. Radio graph of the chest showed characteristic charges of pneumocomosis pulmonary fibrosis and emphysema. Electrocardiogram normal Diagnosis. Pneumocomosis. Pulmonary fibrosis.
- Case 12 Male 46 years Had worked at sand blasting for 2 years. Slight cough during the last year. Moderate dyspical on physical activity. No cardiac symptoms.

 Chest had normal appearance. Heart not enlarged. Electrocardio gram normal. Radiograph of the chest suggested pneumocomosis and pulmonary emphysema.

 Diagnosis. Pneumocomosis. Pulmonary fibrosis.
- Case 13 Mile 42 years Had been exposed to inhalation of siliceous dust for 18 months Moderate dyspina on evertion. No other symptoms. Chest had emphysematous appearance. Heart slightly enlarged to the left. Electrocardiogram indicated left ventricular preponderance. Radiograph of the chest showed changes consistent with pneumocomosis (Larly second stage). Diagnosis. Pneumocomosis. Pulmonary fibrosis. Myocardial disease (compensated).
- Case 14 Male 42 years Had worked at sand blasting for 8 months. Chronic cough during the last two years. He thought that in the last two months he had had slight dyspica on physical activity. No other symptoms.

 Chest normal. Heart not enlarged. Radiograph of the chest showed increase in size of the hila and increased markings but no mottling. Appearance of emphysician in both hases. Diagnosis. Question of pulmonary fibrosis.
- Case 15 Vale 56 years Had been severally exposed to infinition of siliceous dust 7 years. Hemophysis frequent cough and severe dyspine on evertion. Edema of lower extremities. Chest markedly emphysematous. Heart greatly enlarged. Electro cardiogram showed right ventricular preponderance. Radiograph of

the lungs revealed a diffuse soft mottling Pulmonary artery prominent. The total volume of the blood was increased. Diagnosis Pneumoconiosis Pulmonary fibrosis Sclerosis of the pulmonary artery. Myocardial disease. Secondary polycythemia.

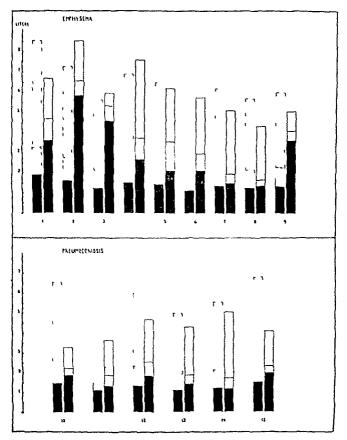
Observations on pulmonary capacity

Pulmonary emphysema The calculated and the observed values for the total pulmonary air and its main subdivisions in the nine subjects having pulmonary emphysema are presented in Table 1, and are shown in Figure 1. In these cases the total capacity of the lungs which was ob-

TABLE 1

Comparison of observed pulmonary capacity with calculated normal values in emphysema and in pneumoconiosis

| Case Total capacity | | Vital capacity | | Mid capicity | | Residual air | | | | | | |
|----------------------------|--|--|--|--|--------------------------------------|---|--|--|--|--|--------|--|
| num ber | Calcu lated | Ob served | Dif ference | Calcu lated | Ob served | Dif ference | Calcu lated | Ob cerved | Dif ference | Calcu lated | Ob | Dif fcrence |
| | liters | liters | per cent | liters | liters | per cent | liters | liters | per cent | liters | liters | fer cent |
| | Pulmonary emphysema | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 2 3 4 5 6 | 8 53 7 25 5 62 6 89 6 47 5 02 6 20 5 70 5 98 | 5 96 7 59 6 18 5 76 5 08 4 32 | $ \begin{array}{r} -22 \ 2 \\ +17 \ 5 \\ +60 \\ +10 \ 1 \\ -45 \\ +147 \\ -181 \\ -243 \\ -158 \end{array} $ | 6 66 5 66 4 39 5 38 5 05 3 92 4 84 4 45 4 67 | 2 70 1 42 4 95 4 00 3 64 | -54 2 -52 3 -67 7 - 8 0 -20 8 - 7 2 -25 7 -33 1 -69 2 | 3 24 2 75 2 13 2 62 2 46 1 91 2 36 2 17 2 27 | 6 56 5 32 3 72 3 56 2 96 1 96 1 66 | + 44 1 +138 5 +149 0 + 41 9 + 44 7 + 54 9 - 17 0 - 23 5 + 79 7 | 1 59 1 23 1 51 1 42 1 10 1 36 1 25 | 1 34 | + 90 0 +266 0 +269 1 + 74 8 + 53 5 + 92 7 + 8 8 + 7 2 +174 8 |



THE TO CALCULATED AND OBSERVED PLEMONARY CALACITY IN CASES OF PLEMONARY UNITARILY AND PART MOCONIOSIS

Inch case is represented by two columns. The one on the lett, with broken lines as the predicted value, and the right column as the observed volume.

In black readult are. True verse line dividing the white area (vital capacity) is the mid espacity level.

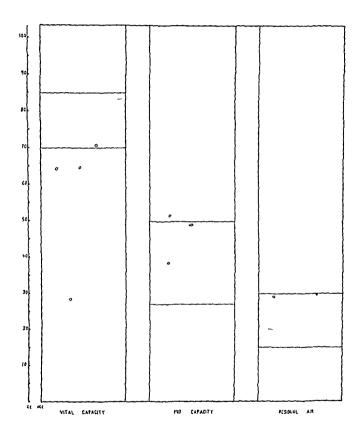


FIG 2 RELATIVE PULMONARY CALACITIES (TOTAL CAPACITY == 100 PFR CENT) IN CASES OF PULMONARY EMPHASEMY AND PNEUMOCONIOSIS

The shaded areas represent limits of normal variations Black dots are cases of pulmonary emphysemal circles are cases of pneumoconiosis

These alterations in the absolute values of the pulmonary airs are reflected in the relative values. That this is so may be appreciated by a study of Table 2. The vital capacity is reduced and the residual air cor-

TABLE 2
Relative values of subdivisions of pulmonary capacity in emphysema and pneumoconiosis

| ==== | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------|-----------------------------|---|--------|-------------|-----------------------------------|-------------|--------|----------|
| C1se number | R Vital cap Total vol | Ratio reparetty and Ratio Residual air reparetty rolume × 100 Residual air reparetty rolume × 100 Ratio rolume × 100 Total volume × 100 | | acity | Complementary ur Vital capacity X | | | |
| | Normal | Observed | Normal | Observed | Normal | Observed | Normal | Observed |
| Pulmonary emphysema | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | 78 0 | 45 9 | 22 0 | 54 1 | 38 0 | 70 4 | 79 4 | 64.6 |
| 2 3 | 780 | 317 | 22 0 | 68 3 | 38 0 | 770 | 79 4 | 72 6 |
| 3 | 78 0 | 23 8 | 22 0 | 76 4 | 38 0 | 876 | 79 4 | 451 |
| 4 5 | 780 | 65 2 | 22 0 | 34 8 | 38 0 | 49 1 | 79 4 | 78 2 |
| | 78 0 | 64.7 | 22 0 | 353 | 38 0 | 57.6 | 79 4 | 65.5 |
| 6 | 780 | 63 2 | 22 0 | 36.8 | 38 0 | 51.4 | 79 4 | 770 |
| 7 | 78 0 | 708 | 22 0 | 29 1 | 380 | 38 5 | 79 4 | 88 1 |
| 8 | 78 O | 64 3 | 22 0 | 35 7 | 38 0 | 38 7 | 79 4 | 89.3 |
| 9 | 78 0 | 28 5 | 22 0 | 71 4 | 38 0 | 80 9 | 79 4 | 66 6 |
| | | |] | Pncumocor | 110515 | | | |
| 10 | 78 0 | 43.6 | 22 0 | 56.4 | 38 0 | 67.3 | 79.4 | 75.0 |
| 11 | 780 | 63 7 | 220 | 360 | 38 0 | 50 9 | 794 | 767 |
| 12 | 780 | 61.5 | 22 0 | 38 4 | 380 | 54 4 | 794 | 79 7 |
| 13 | 780 | 69 3 | 22 0 | 30 7 | 380 | 43 4 | 794 | 84.5 |
| 14 | 78 0 | 77 1 | 22 0 | 22 9 | 38 0 | 33 6 | 79 4 | 86 1 |
| 15 | 780 | 51.4 | 22 0 | 48 6 | 38 0 | 56 5 | 79.4 | 84 6 |
| | | | | | | | | |

respondingly increased. In severe cases the residual air occupies a much greater proportion of the total volume than the vital capacity. A profound alteration in the ability to ventilate the alveoli has accordingly taken place

In many cases especially in the severe ones, the complementary air makes up a smaller portion of the vital capacity than is the case with normal persons. This defect is a noteworthy feature in Cases I and 3 in which the volume of reserve air is strictly normal. It appears therefore that the distended lungs cannot be deflated to the normal level, but that a forced expiration expels nevertheless a normal quantity of air owing to the change in volume of mid capacity.

When the vital capacity is composed chiefly of reserve air, or when the latter volume is not as markedly reduced as the complementary air, there is probably a further handicap to effective alveolar ventilation

Christie (2) found the volume of the reserve air was smaller after a maximum inspiration than is the case when it is measured after a normal expiration and interpreted this as an indication of diminished elasticity of

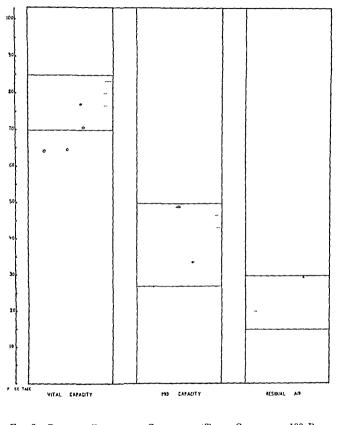


FIG. 2 RELATIVE PULMONARY CAPACITIES (TOTAL CAPACITY = 100 PER CENT) IN CASES OF PULMONARY EMPHYSEMY AND PNEUMOCONIOSIS

The shaded areas represent limits of normal variations Black dots are cases of pulmonary emphysemal circles are cases of pneumocomiosis

the lungs in pulmonary emphysema. There is apparently a decrease in the ability of individuals to deflate the lungs after they have been fully expanded. We have investigated this phenomenon in all our cases and have found that it is not always present. It occurred in two instances but was not evident in some of the most severe and most unquestionable cases of emphysema.

Pneumocomosis The results of our observations in this condition differ from those obtained in pulmonary emphysema. The observed total capacity of the lungs is as a rule lower than the calculated. This decrease is proportional to the clinical and radiological evidence of the severity of the disease. The lungs of these patients contain at maximum inspiration a smaller volume of air than would be predicted from the radiographic measurements of the chest The diminution in total capacity is caused entirely by decrease in the vital capacity. The residual air is moderately increased in almost all cases, and this change indicates that there is some degree of pulmonary emphysema associated with the fibrotic changes This observation agrees with the frequent demonstration by pathologists and radiologists of emphysematous areas in the lungs of these patients The mid capacity is found to be normal in most instances. The vital capacity is reduced in proportion to the total volume, and the residual air greater but these alterations are relatively less than in cases of pulmonary emphysema. The increase in the ratio (Residual air, Fotal volume) is chiefly due to diminution in the vital capacity. The two components of the vital capacity the reserve and complementary air show a normal relationship to each other in pneumocomosis

Chest expansion

Changes in the ratio (Area at maximum expiration Area at maximum inspiration) × 100 (measured on the doubly exposed radiograph of the lungs) are especially interesting. From previous studies (4) of normal male subjects we concluded that a ratio higher than 72.0 may be considered as indicating diminished expansion. In all but two of the cases of pulmonary emphysema this ratio was higher than 72 (Table 3). In these two the diagnosis of emphysema was made on clinical grounds only. In neither of them did the pulmonary capacity show marked significant abnormality. It appears then that in undoubted cases of pulmonary emphysema there is a conspicuous decrease in ability to expand the chest (see Figure 3). The diaphragmatic excursion and the lateral expansion of the chest also are as a rule decreased. The angle of movement of a rib in changing from full expiration to maximum inspiration was markedly reduced in the majority of patients. In two of the severest cases movement was almost infinitely and the chest was almost infinitely and the chest of the case of patients.

In pneumocomosis the ratio (\rea at maximum expiration/\rea at maximum inspiration) \times 100 was within upper normal limits in all but two cases. In one it was markedly altered, due to reduced expansion of

TABLE 3
Chest expansion

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|--|--|---|---|---|--|--|--|--|--|
| Case num ber | Ratio Area at maximum expiration Area at maximum inspiration × 100 | Dia phragmatic excursion * | Lateral expansion | Rib movement | Circum ference expansion | | | | | |
| | | Chi | cm | degrees | cm | | | | | |
| Pulmonary emphysema | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 | 90 9 86 8 84 9 77 9 70 7 75 5 77 4 66 9 82 9 | 03 35 24 58 51 43 33 47 48 | 2 3 2 2 0 4 2 8 1 0 2 2 1 0 0 6 0 2 | 20 7 3 14 11 22 12 10 2 | 40 45 20 100 80 70 80 50 30 | | | | | |
| | ſ | ncumoconios | is | | <u> </u> | | | | | |
| 10 11 12 13 14 15 | 89 5 70 0 73 5 60 6 70 9 73 8 | 08 50 47 53 41 53 | 1 8 2 5 0 9 2 8 2 3 1 1 | 8 15 13 18 | 4 0 6 0 5 0 4 0 6 0 3 5 | | | | | |

^{*} Average of both draphragms

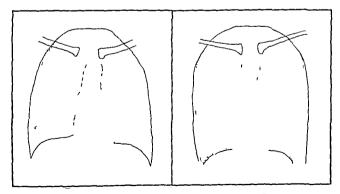


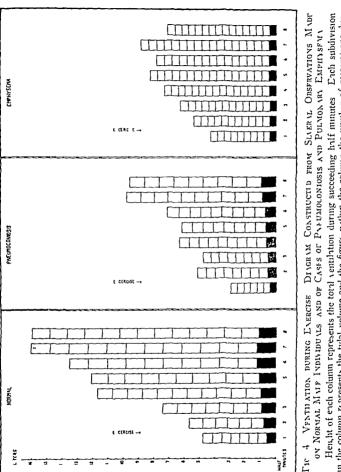
Fig. 3 Outline of the Lung Fields of Minimum Instiration and Enpiration in a Normal Man (Left) and in a Case of Pulmonary Emphysema (Right)

the chest. The diaphragmatic excursion the lateral expansion of the chest and the movement of the rib were usually within normal limits. Reduction in chest expansion is not characteristic of picumocomosis and pulmonary fibrosis, as it is of pulmonary emphysema.

Relationship of dyspuca to alterations in capacity of the lungs

A striking correlation is found to exist between the observed alterations in capacity of the lungs and the tendency to dyspinea. In all those cases in which there was severe limitation in physical activity we find marked changes in the absolute and relative pulmonary capacity. A high ratio (Residual air/Total volume) is almost always accompanied by a pronounced degree of dyspinea on physical evertion. On the other hand in Cases 4, 5–7–8 and 14 in which such a ratio was either normal or but slightly increased the history of dyspinea on evertion was not conspicuous. The tendency to dyspinea in the cases of pneumocomosis was less severe as a rule, than in those with pulmonary emphysicial and the changes in the relative pulmonary capacities were correspondingly not as great. In two cases in which the ratio of residual air to total volume was high dyspine i on physical activity was, however, also severe

While discussing the adaptation to physical activity it will be pertinent to present some observations on the measurement of pulmonary ventilation during exercise. The observations included graphic registration of the number of respirations tidal and minute volumes, of patient while engaged in work in a specially designed chair ergometer. These investigations are summarized graphically in Figure 4 Normally the process of adaptation to physical activity necessitates greater frequency of respiration as well as increase in the tidal volume so that the ventilation per minute is considerably increased Peabody (6) found that efficient ventilation during exercise is closely related to the vital capacity and that when this is low the maximum possible pulmonary ventilation is reduced proportionally. In pneumocomosis in which there is a decrease in the vital capacity patients were able to increase the number as well as the depth of the respirations during exercise yet the total ventilation was considerably less than in men In pulmonary emphysema an abnormal response to physical exercise is The vital capacity was low and there was diminished ability to expand the chest Emphysematous individuals during physical activity tend to increase the rate rather than the depth of breathing (Fig. 4) Difficulty in expansion of the chest in emphysema is so great that when accessory muscles are brought into play volunturily increase in the depth of breathing is accompanied by decrease in rate. In all the cases subjected to exercise tests there has been severe dyspnea on exertion and in each case the maximum ventilation attainable has been less than normal



in the column represents the tidal volume and the figure within the column the number of respirations during that fruit minute Γ_{1C}

Pulmonary capacity and arterial saturation with oxygen

In seven cases the arterial blood has been examined to determine its content of carbon dioxide and the degree of saturation with oxygen. The results and the corresponding pulmonary capacities are presented in 1 blood. The lowest values for saturation of arterial blood with oxygen have been found in cases in which the ratio (Residual air/Total volume) was abnormally high.

| TABLE 4 |
|--|
| Relationship of arterial oxygen saturation to pulmonary capacity |

| Cases | Oxygen saturation arternal blood | CO content arternal blood volume | Decrease in vital capacity | Increase in residual air | Ratio Residual air Total volume |
|-------|--|--|----------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| | per cent | per cent | per cent | per cent | per cent |
| (3) | 729 | 49 3 | -67 7 | +269 1 | 76 2 |
| (1) | 796 | 47 6 | -54 2 | +900 | 54 1 |
| (2) | 80 0 | 46 7 | -523 | +2660 | 65 3 |
| (10) | 806 | 55 2 | -719 | +29 1 | 56 1 |
| (11) | 81 2 | 46 2 | -419 | +169 | 36.3 |
| (4) | 956 | 50 2 | - 80 | +748 | 34.8 |
| (12) | 957 | 44 2 | -39 5 | +34 5 | o5 5 |

DISCUSSION

Marked and significant changes in the absolute and relative pulmonary capacities exist as these studies show in cases of pulmonary emphysema The results are in agreement with the investigations of Lundsgaard and Schierbeck (5) and Anthony (1), who found a normal total volume but a marked decrease in the vital capacity and a corresponding increase in the residual air The fact that there are definite alterations in the capacity of the lungs in cases of this nature, and that these changes are closely correlated with the clinical condition and the tendency to dyspuca, is of considerable importance. The diagnosis of pulmonary emphysema is not so easy to establish clinically as it appears to be in emphysematous appearance of the chest may be due entirely to skeletal changes without alteration in the lungs and conversely actual emphysema in the pathologicalphysiological sense of the word, may be present and may escape clinical detection because the chest is of normal size and shape. Not infrequently symptoms of respiratory failure are attributed to heart disease especially m people past middle age when pulmonary changes alone are responsible for the symptoms In doubtful cases the measurement of the pulmonary capacity will aid in establishing the correct diagnosis. The calculated pulmonary capacity in some cases of pulmonary emphysema is not strictly to be regarded as 'normal' since we are using as a basis for prediction the size of the chest which in itself may be pathological. To be normal the capacity of the lungs in a given case must correspond to the volume of

the chest before pathological alterations occurred. We have investigated in normal men the possible correlation of thoracic volume with other bodily characteristics, and have not found any correlation by means of which we could predict normal values from other data such as height weight, or surface area. In emphysema observed total pulmonary capacities agree fairly closely with the size of the chest estimated from measurements of radiographs. The most significant alterations occur in the relative values of the subdivisions of total capacity.

There are no previous observations in the literature regarding pul monary capacity in cases of pneumocomosis and pulmonary fibrosis. We have observed that there are significant changes in such cases, the degree of which is closely correlated with the functional efficiency of respiration and with the anatomical changes revealed in the radiological examinations. From these observations it seems probable that the determination of the pulmonary capacity may be of value in the proper evaluation of the degree of respiratory disability. In Case 14 in which the evidence of fibrosis in the lungs was small, the pulmonary capacity was normal. But in Cases 10 and 11 in which it was great the capacity of the lungs was much diminshed. In four of five cases there was moderate increase in the volume of residual air due probably to secondary emphysema usually found in association with advanced pulmonary fibrosis.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

1 In seven of nine cases of pulmonary emphysema the total pulmonary capacity observed corresponded closely with that predicted from measure ments of the chest cavity. In two it was slightly less. Increase in the volume of the residual air and a corresponding reduction in the vital capacity was observed in all cases.

2 In emphysematous patients there was definite reduction in expansion of the chest, the degree being closely correlated with alterations in the rela-

tive pulmonary capacities

3 In cases of pneumocomosis (pulmonary fibrosis) the total capacity of the lungs observed was less than that predicted from measurements of the class due to decrease in the vital capacity. The residual air was moderately increased in four of five cases. In one the changes were minimal

4 Decrease in expansion of the chest was not a significant feature of cases of pneumocomosis (pulmonary fibrosis)

5 Cases in which the ratio (Residual air/Total volume) was abnormally high were found to exhibit low saturation of the arterial blood with oxygen indicating poor alveolar ventilation

Preliminary observations on response to exercise showed that the capacity to ventilate the lungs was limited in a severe case of emphysemand in one of pneumocomosis compared with that in a normal man

Further observations will be necessary to establish a relation between the degree of functional disability and abnormalities in pulmonary capacity

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THE EFFECT OF DIGITALIS ON THE VENOUS PRESSURE OF NORMAL INDIVIDUALS

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(Received for publication April 17 1933)

That the administration of digitalis in heart failure causes an increase in cardiac output (per minute and per beat) and a fall in venous pressure is well known (1). It is also well established that the exhibition of digitalis to normal men and dogs results in a decreased output (2 3 4 5 6 7) but data on venous pressure in normal individuals following digitalis are inconclusive.

In animals Villaret Grellety Bosylel and coworkers (8) found a fail of venous pressure after intravenous injection of ourbain. Kaufmann (9) Popper (10), and Dock and Trinter (5-6) found a decreased venous pressure following intravenous injection of strophanthin and digitalis. Plumier (11) noted increased venous pressure after strophanthin and digitaxin. Yokota (12) found a small decrease greater decrease and in crease in venous pressure with intravenous injection of small inedium and large doses respectively of strophanthin. Capps and Matthews (13) found no change after digitalis.

In man Stewart and Cohn (7) found a marked fall in venous pressure in one normal subject after oral administration of digital using the Moritz Tabora (20) technique of venous pressure determination. Simul taneously in the first subject, and in two other subjects they found no constant change when a less accurate method was used (that of allowing blood to rise in a dry tube)

As Evster (14) pointed out it is impossible to determine whether the changes produced by digitalis in output are cardiac or extra cardiac in origin unless the changes in venous pressure are known. In decompen sated hearts it is agreed (5.7) that the increased output is due largely to the change in ventricular tone any peripheral action of digitalis being relatively unumportant (although Wollheim (15) and others (16.17) credit the reduction in effective (systemic) blood volume with more importance in relieving congestive failure)

Opinion differs widely however regarding the origin of the digitalis effects in the normal organism. Cohin and his coworkers (7-18-19) unable to demonstrate venous pressure changes hold that the decreased cardiac output is due to diminished ventricular filling caused by increased tone

of the heart muscle—Dock and Tainter (5-6) on the other hand believe that the decreased output is due to diminished ventricular filling caused by lowered venous pressure (with lessened return flow of blood to the heart), which they have shown to be the result of pooling of blood in the portal system

Grollman (1) states that it is impossible at present to say definitely if the primary cause of the observed decrease in the cardiac output following administration of digitalis to normal individuals is due to its action on the heart or on peripheral structures. This study was designed to obtain data on the height of venous pressure before and after the administration of full doses of digitalis to normal human beings to determine whether the question of cardiac or extra-cardiac action of the drug in decreasing output could be answered.

METHODS

Thirty-seven control and 82 experimental observations were made on venous pressure before and after the administration of digitalis (in single doses) in 9 trials on 8 normal subjects

Apparatus and technique—The method used was one of the direct (vene-puncture) types, a simplification of the Moritz-Libora (20) technique as suggested by Dock—The system consisted of an intravenous needle and a manometer (a straight 20 cm length of glass tubing 3 mm inside diameter), connected by means of a Kaufmann-Luer syringe—The needle and syringe were boiled before each determination, while the manometer was kept in 95 per cent alcohol

Before use, the system was connected and filled with sterile physiological saline to avoid the misleading effects of the viscosity of a blood column rising in a dry tube. The saline-filled system was suspended over the antecubit it tossa of the subject and venepuncture performed in the usual aseptic manner. The plunger of the syringe was then withdrawn until the manometer was in direct communication with the vein, and fastened in place. The column of saline was allowed to fall in the manometer until equilibrium was reached when the height of the top of the column above the vein was read. Eight millimeters (found by trial) was subtracted from each reading to allow for capillarity

Each reading was made with the subject in the supine position on a thin mattress without sag so that the olecranon and the dorsum of the thorax were on the same plane. To avoid the effects of exercise (21) the subjects assumed this position 20 to 30 minutes before each determination. No readings were taken immediately after the subjects had caten. Room temperature was approximately constant.

All clothing above the waist was removed. Stasis for venepuncture was momentary only. After each reading the upper arm was compressed to insure patency of the needle and to allow the saline to rise and fall again for a confirmatory reading. Because of the number of venepunctures in each subject both arms were used, preliminary observations having shown that this proceeding introduced no error.

No effort was made to approximate the level of the antecubit d voin to that of the right auricle as we were more interested in following changes from hour to hour in any given subject and felt that accuracy would be significed in an it tempt were made to obtain absolute venous pressure (22)

Subjects There were 8 subjects 6 men and 2 women. Age varied from 35 to 63 verts. Two series of observations were made on one woman. All subjects were unbulatory patients on the neuro psychiatry word diagnosed psychoneurosis psychasthenia involutional melancholia and schizophrenia. Most of them cooperated nicely. None showed any evidence of cardiovascular abnormalities in particular there were absolutely no signs or symptoms of cardiac decompensation in any subject. None of these patients experienced the symptoms of pain lassitude or dyspie noted by Stewart and Colin (7) after digitalis administration.

Digitalis The digitalis powder used was kindly supplied and standardized by Doctor A B Stockton It assaved 108 mgm to one Hatcher cat unit (predicted clinical dose = 21 to 35 mgm per kgm) and 25 mgm to one pigeon emetic dose (predicted clinical dose = 25 mgm per kgm) The dosage varied from 10 to 16 gram (192 to 300 mgm per kgm) Each subject received the powder in one dose at six o clock in the morning before breakfast

RESULTS

The initial venous pressure determinations in five of the subjects were obviously fullacious being 2.2.4.1 and 4.9 cm higher than the average of the remaining control observations in three cases and 11.0 and 3.1 cm lower in two. In another instance a single reading 6.8 cm higher was found. All of these erroneous values were discarded in the computations of results and do not appear in the figures or tables, the net result of discarding these observations is to minimize slightly the venous pressure decrease to be pointed out below.

There are 37 control observations distributed over 9 series — The variabilities (100 σ /Mcan) of the series are 14 1 11 7 11 4 10 1 7 3 7 1 6 4 4 2 and 3 2 per cent respectively — The average variability is 8 4 per cent There are 82 observations after digitalis

An afternoon rise of venous pressure was noted in 4 of 6 series of control observations. The mean afternoon rise in these 6 series was 0 fcm of saline. This is in the same direction, but of much less degree than the diurnal variation noted with an indirect method by Hooker (23). No correction for this small variation was made in the computations.

The control and experimental results are summarized in Table 1 (hours approximated). Table 2 and Figure 1. It is evident that digitalis caused a fall of venous pressure of greatest degree (minus 1.96 cm, saline) at 24 to 32 hours after administration, with a return to the control level at 72 to 96 hours.

DISCUSSION

In Figure 2 (data in Table 3) is represented a comparison of our results on venous pressure (A) with those of Cohn and Stewart (4,7) on cardiac output in humans (B) and in dogs (C). All means are computed by averaging observations about their respective modes

Table 1 Lifect of grang digitalis on venous pressure in normal individuals

| Sulvects* | | + storted | | | | | Iloi | Hours after oral administration of digitalis‡ | יייס יייס יי | ministr | tion of | lışıtalis | ++ | | | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------|--|-----------|-------|------------|-----------|-------------|---|--------------|-----------|---------|---|-------|-------------|-------|------|------------|
| | | | | 8 | 2 | 12 | 91 | 28 | 92 | 52 | 09 | 15 | 102 | 132 | 156 | 130 | 107 |
| Hu of 12 63 62 1 kgm 1 2 krim | 63 ,rum | 11 2 11 8 11 0 10 5 Mc m = 11 1 Pulsc = 60 | 87.5 | | +20 83 | | | +1+ | | | 112 | | | | | | |
| 11 of 11 50 52 0 km 10 km | 50 .r.um | 12.7 11.6 11.2 13.3 Mr. m = 13.0 Pulse = 101 | 106 | | | -03 45 | | 1118 | | | | | | | | | |
| 730 km 15 km | æ r, | 136 135 115 134 Mem=137 Pulse=75 | 107 | 107 6 | £03 | | 202 | 100 | | | | 07.88 | 17.98 | +2 0 91 | | | 101 |
| | | | -2 e | | 42.7 | | | . | | | | | | | | | |
| R1 9 ut 52 17 I kkm 10 krum | 5.2 krum | 15 0 11 5 10 5 12 0 Mcm=130 Pulse=70 | -25 91 | | 83 | | +20 \$0 | | 0 2 2 | | 1+15 | | | | | - | |
| | | | | | | | 91 | · | | | | *************************************** | | | | | |
| 13r of 111 600 km 13r | 11 53 1 3 prim | 107 12 5 11 2 11 7 11 5 Mr m=13 3 Pulsc=73 | 1107 | | 1121 | 112 | -0 s 101 | 72 | 25.5 | 101 | 100 | Ì | | 00- | 100 | | |
| Strkm 15 krun | 00 krutit | 91 10 1 10 5 Me m = 10 0 Pulse = 91 | 01-6 | 95 | 000# | 102-1 | 10- | 97 - 36 | 75 | 2,3 | 727 | 10.02 | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | ±0 0 79 | | 400 | | | | | | |
| 57 1 km 10 g | 11 52 10 srum | 110 12 t 10 5 12 3 Me m = 11 5 Pulse = 69 | 110 | | -2 0 90 | | | 107 | | -32 96 | 60-1 | 807 | 045 | | | | |
| MI 1 9 MC | 12 krum | 112 48 45 10 1 0 6 Mcm = 9 6 Pulst = 45 | +06 | 2.2 | 75 | 100 | 113 | 130 | | | 103 | -0.5 | +0 + | | 90-11 | 118 | 511 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | 9 0 - 103 | | | 101 | 1-3 | 101 101 |
| Mi II Q w.c. | 12 Krill | Ncm 92 Pul c= 87 | -2 ¢ | 33.6 | 72 | | 97 | 110 | 178 | 101 | 100 | 1001 | 0 011 | 1202 | 15 = | | |
| | | | | | | | | | 101 | | | | ~~~~ | | | ···· | |
| 7111117 + | | the state of the s | | | | - | 1 | - | | ~ | - | - | - | | | _ | |

the ment controls are given all remons pressure observations in centimeters of saline, with their means the means of the subjects in inged in order of increasing inignitude of digitals doalse per kilostim bods weight control pulses () ite per minute) ire ilso given

\$115 mes in upper line preceded by (5-) or (--) are deviations from control mem renons pressure in economicters of siture I ower but haures we pulse tates in percentage of control men

TABLE 2

Effect of giving digitalis on the venous pressure of normal individuals Means of all observations

| Hours after administration of digitalis | Range of hours after digitalis | Number of observations | Venous pressure, Deviation from control mean | Pulse rate Percentage of control mean |
|---|--|------------------------------|--|--|
| hours 9 3 31 7 57 3 88 9 167 8 | hours 4- 17 28- 38 52- 62 76-104 120-270 | 14 12 10 12 82 | em saline -1 35 -1 96 -1 08 +0 06 -0 28 | 947 cent 97 0 98 5 95 6 102 5 102 1 |
| 4 8 9 2 13 5 | 4- 5 7-10 11-17 | 10 13 11 34 | -2 26 -0 70 -1 29 | 98 3 93 6 99 7 |

In the lower part of the table, the observations in the first 17 hours are further separated The comparatively high venous pressure in the 7-10 hour range is due to the slow pulse (93 6 per cent) See discussion in text.

Direction of changes Digitalis, in normal individuals, causes a decrease in both cardiac output and venous pressure It is axiomatic that a cardiac cause for diminished output will result in an increased venous pressure.

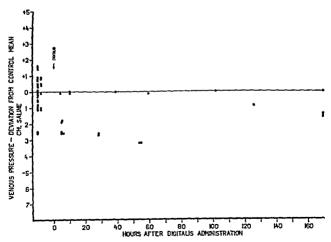


Fig 1 Scatter Diagram Showing All Observations

sure, and that an extra-cardiac production of lowered venous pressure will bring about a decreased cardiac output

Duration of changes The time relations of venous pressure changes to cardiac output changes are similar. The lowest mean venous pressure

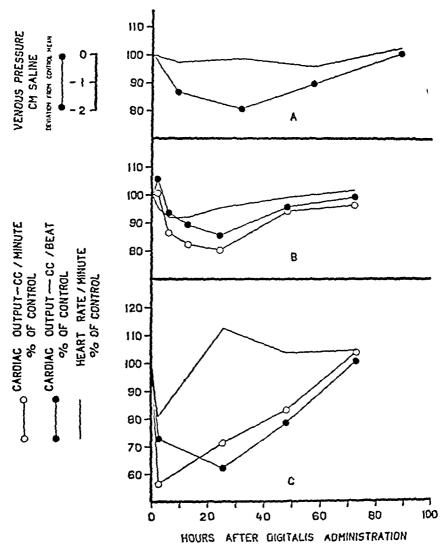


Fig 2 The Effect of Digitalis on Venous Pressure and Cardiac Output in Normal Individuals

A Venous pressure B Output in human beings (7) C Output in dogs (4)

occurred at 317 hours, while the minute and stroke volume in man fell to their lowest values at 24 hours (after oral administration of digitalis). The 8 hour difference is probably due to the paucity of observations and to the necessity of averaging observations about their modes. In dogs, be-

TABLE 3

The effects of digitalis administration on venous pressure and on cardiac output A comparison

| | · | | | | |
|--|------------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| Hours after digitalis administration | Number of observations | Venous pressure Deviation from control mean | Stroke volume Percentage of control | Minute volume Percentage of control | Pulse rate Percentage of control |
| hours | number | em saline | per cent | per cent | per cent |
| | A Ve | nous pressure in | the normal hum | an being | · |
| 9 3 31 7 57 3 88 9 | 34 14 12 10 | -1 35 -1 96 -1 08 +0 06 | | | 97 0 98 5 95 6 102 5 |
| | B Car | diac output in th | e normal human | being (7) | |
| 2 6 13 24 48 72 | 2 10 8 7 6 4 | | 105 5 93 4 89 3 85 4 95 6 99 0 | 100 5 86 4 82 1 80 1 95 2 96 2 | 95 5 92 5 92 2 95 4 99 1 101 5 |
| | С | Cardiac output | in the normal do | g (4) | |
| 2 5 25 5 48 73 | 11 12 3 4 | | 72 9 62 2 78 4 100 5 | 56 5 71 2 83 0 103 8 | 80 9 112 5 103 7 104 5 |

cause of the intravenous administration of the drug, time relationships are not strictly comparable, even here, however, the stroke volume is lowest at 25.5 hours

Venous pressure returned to the control level between 72 and 96 hours after digitals. Cardiac output in man reached normal values in 72 hours (stroke volume 99 0 and minute volume 96 2 per cent of their respective controls). Cardiac output in dogs was slightly above the control in 73 hours. (The apparent 16 day duration of depressed output in Stewart and Cohn s (7) Subject 1 is undoubtedly due to a high control reading for the values at 4, 5, 7, and 16 days after digitals are remarkably constant—87, 89, 88, and 82 per cent of the control minute volume respectively.)

The effect of digitalis on the A-V conduction time and T wave of the electrocardiogram disappears in 5 to 22 days (24 25). We made no electrocardiographic studies, but with the doses used the calculated duration of conduction time and T wave effects in our series would be 8 to 14 days (26).

The duration of digitalis action on both cardiac output and venous pressure is more fleeting, then, than on the central T wave and A-V con-

sure, and that an extra-cardiac production of lowered venous pressure will bring about a decreased cardiac output

Duration of changes The time relations of venous pressure changes to cardiac output changes are similar. The lowest mean venous pressure

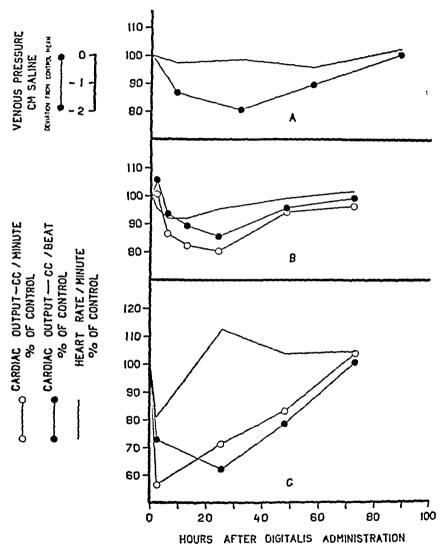


Fig 2 The Effect of Digitalis on Venous Pressure and Cardiac Output in Normal Individuals

A Venous pressure B Output in human beings (7) C Output in dogs (4)

occurred at 317 hours, while the minute and stroke volume in man fell to their lowest values at 24 hours (after oral administration of digitalis). The 8 hour difference is probably due to the paucity of observations and to the necessity of averaging observations about their modes. In dogs, be-

be regarded as constant, and the effects on diastolic size, as measures of the effect of digitalis on tone." Obviously, heart work is a function of the output per beat and is not, as Cohn and Steele suggest, measured by the oxygen consumption of the entire organism. Starling and Visscher (29) have demonstrated that diastolic volume varies with heart work, so that the decreased size of the heart observed by Cohn and Stewart (4, 7) should occur as a result of the decreased output. In expelling equal quantities of blood, a small heart must make greater excursions than does a larger heart. This fact amply explains the observations of Cohn and Stewart (4) without the necessity of invoking changes of tone. The effect is great enough to exist despite the decreased volume which the small heart ejects after digitalis.

Cohn and Steele (18) further state "the decrease in volume output which has been noticed was thought to result from the tonic effect of digitalis upon the heart (4), in consequence of which its size diminished so much, that a large or even a usual volume of blood could not be received and, therefore, could not be ejected. If this were the case, venous pressure should rise as it does in cardiac tamponade (27), we have demonstrated on the contrary, that venous pressure actually falls. Moreover, Wiggers and Stimson (30) showed by intraventricular pressure curves that the heart under digitalis offers no more resistance to inflowing blood than does the normal undigitalized heart.

Finally, Tainter (31) was able to reproduce the typical digitalis effects of decreased output and lowered venous pressure in cats with the Gibbs artificial heart apparatus in which preparation the heart is replaced by a mechanical pump and in which, therefore there could be absolutely no

question of changes in "heart tone"

Relation of venous pressure to pulse rate If digitalis brady cardia were due to the Bainbridge reflex, following decreased auricular pressure, we should expect the greatest slowing of pulse to occur in those subjects with the largest fall of venous pressure However, Figure 3 (data in Tables 2 and 4) shows that the opposite is the case (the increased venous pressure in Figure 3 C is due to errors of selection because of the small number of observations)

The fact that the pulse rate mean chanced not to fall below 95 per cent of the control in our series in no way invalidates the significance of the venous pressure decrease, for in the dogs of Cohn and Stewart (4), the lowest outputs were recorded with a mean pulse rate of 112 5 per cent of the control Burwell, Neighbors, and Regen (3) also noted that output returned toward normal when their subjects experienced nausea or had more rapid pulses. In one patient with acute hepatitis (not included in this series) in whom digitalis produced partial heart block (pulse rate 41 to 47) and intense nausea and vomiting of four days duration the venous pressure fell only 14 and 08 cm at 5 and 11 hours respectively. The ef-

duction time changes - It is more prolonged than the rise of arterial pressure in dogs

Degree of changes Dock and Tainter (5) found in their dogs F4 and F5 that falls in venous pressure of 35 and 65 cm of water corresponded to minute output reductions of 41 and 55 per cent of controls, respectively. On the average, 10 cm of venous pressure was equivalent to 101 per cent of minute volume. Beck and Isaac (27) found, in experimental cardiac tamponade studies, that a 33 cm rise in venous pressure was associated with a 36 per cent reduction in cardiac output, and a 100 cm rise with a 64 per cent reduction. Thus, 10 cm of venous pressure was equivalent to 86 per cent of minute volume. Wiggers (28) presents a figure showing increasing systolic discharge in parallel with experimentally increased venous pressure (heart rate constant). Measurements taken from this figure permit the calculation that 10 cm of venous pressure is equivalent to 1087 per cent of stroke volume.

Figure 2, in which the venous pressures of one group of subjects are compared with the cardiac outputs of a similarly studied group, shows that at the time of the maximal digitalis effect in man the venous pressure had fallen 196 cm and the minute and stroke volumes 199 and 146 per cent of their respective controls that is, a 10 cm venous pressure change corresponded to a 1015 and a 745 per cent change in minute and stroke volumes

From a comparison of our results with those of Cohn and Stewart (4, 7), it is evident that venous pressure and cardiac output changes in normal individuals after digitalis correlate remarkably well in direction, time, and degree. The observations on direction can be explained only by a peripheral mechanism of digitalis action, those on time support such a mechanism, for the change in venous pressure and cardiac output (like that in arterial pressure in dogs) is less prolonged than the effect on the T wave and conduction time, the degree of the venous pressure change is sufficient to explain the observed fall of cardiac output. The correlation which Stewart and Cohn (7) make between output and cardiac area is not so well marked as that between output and venous pressure, and neither supports nor controverts either the cardiac or extra-cardiac hypothesis of digitalis action.

The question of cardiac tone According to Cohn and Steele (18), digitalis decreases cardiac output in normal cardiovascular systems by an increase in cardiac tone the only evidence presented that the tone is increased is that of Cohn and Stewart (4) The latter observers found, radiographically, that the hearts of normal dogs became smaller and exhibited greater ventricular excursions after digitalis

Cohn and Steele (18) state "since, in the experiments of Cohn and Stewart (4), the measurements were made during periods when the dogs were in so-called basal states, the work which their hearts performed may

be regarded as constant, and the effects on diastolic size, as measures of the effect of digitalis on tone." Obviously, heart work is a function of the output per beat and is not, as Cohn and Steele suggest, measured by the oxygen consumption of the entire organism. Starling and Visscher (29) have demonstrated that diastolic volume varies with heart work, so that the decreased size of the heart observed by Cohn and Stewart (4, 7) should occur as a result of the decreased output. In expelling equal quantities of blood, a small heart must make greater excursions than does a larger heart. This fact amply explains the observations of Cohn and Stewart (4) without the necessity of invoking changes of tone. The effect is great enough to exist despite the decreased volume which the small heart ejects after digitalis.

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Finally, Tainter (31) was able to reproduce the typical digitalis effects of decreased output and lowered venous pressure in cats with the Gibbs artificial heart apparatus, in which preparation the heart is replaced by a mechanical pump and in which, therefore, there could be absolutely no question of changes in ' heart tone"

Relation of venous pressure to pulse rate If digitalis bradycardia were due to the Bainbridge reflex, following decreased auricular pressure, we should expect the greatest slowing of pulse to occur in those subjects with the largest fall of venous pressure However, Figure 3 (data in Tables 2 and 4) shows that the opposite is the case (the increased venous pressure in Figure 3 C is due to errors of selection because of the small number of observations)

The fact that the pulse rate mean chanced not to fall below 95 per cent of the control in our series in no way invalidates the significance of the venous pressure decrease, for in the dogs of Cohn and Stewart (4), the lowest outputs were recorded with a mean pulse rate of 1125 per cent of the control Burwell Neighbors, and Regen (3) also noted that output returned toward normal when their subjects experienced nausea or had more rapid pulses. In one patient with acute hepatitis (not included in this series) in whom digitalis produced partial heart block (pulse rate 41 to 47) and intense nausea and vomiting of four days duration the venous pressure fell only 14 and 08 cm at 5 and 11 hours respectively. The ef-

fect of digitalis in reducing venous pressure is powerful enough, then, to overcome the counteracting effect of digitalis bradycardia (which, unopposed, would increase auricular pressure)

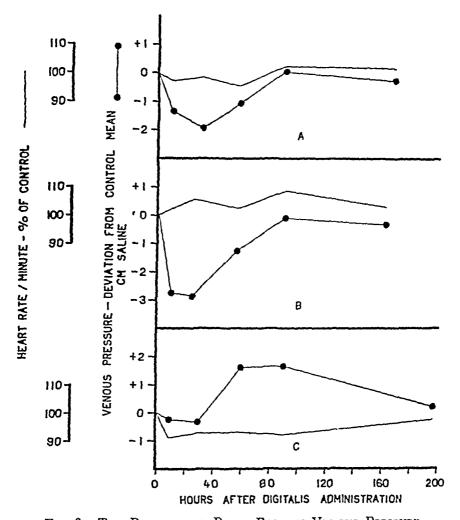


FIG 3 THE RELATION OF PULSE RATE TO VENOUS PRESSURE

A Means of all observations B Means of those with least slowing of pulse C Means of those with greatest slowing of pulse (In C the apparent rise of venous pressure is due to the small number of observations between 40 and 120 hours after giving digitals)

The production of decreased venous pressure. The hypothesis advanced by Dock and Tainter (5, 6, 31) to account for the lowered venous pressure and cardiac output after digitalis is that this drug constricts the hepatic veins, resulting in diminished return flow through the inferior vena cava. References to earlier workers on this "sluice mechanism" are given in their papers, along with their corroboratory experimental data. The

TABLE 4
Relaison of venous pressure to pulse rate

| Houre after digitalis administration | Number of observations | Venous pressure Deviation from control mean | Pulse rate Percentage of control |
|--|------------------------------|---|---|
| hours | number | cm. saline | per cent |
| | A Means | of all subjects | , - |
| 9 3 31 7 57 3 88 9 167 8 | 34 14 12 10 | -1 35 -1 96 -1 08 +0 06 -0 28 | 97 0 98 5 95 6 102 5 102 1 |
| | | lowing of pulse in the fire | · |
| 9 4 25 6 56 3 88 9 161 8 | 15 7 7 7 10 | -2 75 -2 88 -1 24 -0 11 -0 38 | 102 4 105 8 102 3 108 7 103 0 |
| C Means of su | ibjects with greatest | slowing of pulse in the f | irst 36 hours |
| 9 0 30 7 60 5 89 2 197 6 | 14 4 2 2 2 2 | -0 24 -0 33 +1 60 +1 65 +0 20 | 91 0 92 7 93 0 92 0 97 5 |

hypothesis is confirmed by the results of other workers (15, 16 17). Cohn and Steele (18) state that "in order to be effective in shutting off from the volume of blood returning to the right auricle as much as a quarter, the lumina of the two vessels" [right and left hepatic veins] "must be reduced to zero—must be completely obliterated". However, Blalock and Bradburn (32) produced a 75 per cent reduction in cardiac output by intestinal trauma and associated altered circulatory state in the portal area, Elman and Cole (33) found that approximately 60 per cent of the total blood volume accumulates in the splanchnic area within a short time after portal vein ligation, Enderlen and coworkers (34) found that death occurs from reduced arterial pressure and cardiac output in 10 to 60 minutes after portal vein occlusion. With such dramatic results following the prevention of portal outflow, it is easily possible that digitalis should lower cardiac output only 20 per cent and venous pressure 2 cm by constricting hepatic vein radicles.

The anatomic evidence for the "sluice mechanism' has been investigated in cats dogs and human beings by Elias and Feller (36) Popper (37), and Bauer, Dale, Poulsson, and Richards (35), the subject is reviewed by the latter. In brief, the findings suggest that in the dog the mechanism is brought about by the anatomic construction at the caval openings of the hepatic veins, in the cat and in man the hepatic vein radicles probably play a more important role. Whether the greater sensitivity of the dog to digitalis action on cardiac output (Fig. 2) may be attributed to the anatomic findings is not known.

Clinical applications The reduction in heart size noted by Stewart and Cohn (7) is undoubtedly due to the digitalis effects studied above, such action, if sustained, would retard cardiac hypertrophy. In a recent paper, Christian (38) proposes continuous complete digitalization of patients with enlarged hearts (and of those in whom cardiac enlargement may be expected) while compensated, under the clinical impression that enlargement and decompensation are retarded. Because of the importance of this subject, the impression should be confirmed or disproved by experiments designed to determine how long the digitalis effect on heart size, venous pressure, and cardiac output can be sustained in animals, normal human beings, and those compensated patients whom Christian suggests digitalizing to retard heart failure

CONCLUSIONS

- 1 Digitalis causes, in normal human beings and dogs, a decreased cardiac output and a decreased venous pressure. The greatest effect occurs at about 24 to 32 hours after administration of the drug, with a return to normal levels in 72 to 96 hours.
- 2 The observed changes support the hypothesis that digitalis owes its action to a peripheral effect, probably on the hepatic vein radicles, in reducing the return flow of blood to the heart. The hypothesis that the digitalis action follows changes in cardiac tone is negatived by all available data
- 3 Digitalis bradycardia is not due to the fall of venous pressure. On the contrary, the slowing of the heart, by causing the normal increase in venous pressure, partially conceals the effect of digitalis in reducing the return flow of blood to the heart

The author takes this opportunity to thank Dr William Dock for assistance in the preparation of this paper

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A COMPARISON OF THE CREATININE AND UREA CLEAR-ANCE TESTS OF KIDNEY FUNCTION

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(Received for publication May 1 1933)

The urea clearance test developed by Möller, McIntosh and Van Slyke (1) has one disadvantage, namely, that maximum and standard clearances are only comparable by reference to the average normal value for each or by multiplying the standard clearance by a constant. In addition the standard clearance, involving the square root of the urine volume is difficult to interpret. The creatinine clearance test, developed by Rehberg (2), is not subject to these objections, since the excretion of creatinine is independent of urine volume. It therefore seemed worth while to compare the creatinine and urea clearances as a test of renal function, to determine if there was sufficient practical advantage in the creatinine test to compensate for the added technical difficulties.

Rehberg presented evidence that led him to believe that the creatinine clearance represented the volume of glomerular filtrate and on this assumption calculated the quantities of urea and chloride reabsorbed. Rehberg's conception has been accepted by Wyschegorodzewa (3), Bergwall (4), and others (5 6), questioned by Cope (7) and Ekehorn (8), and denied by Shannon, Jolliffe and Smith (9). The evidence at present available does not, in our opinion justify unreservedly accepting the creatinine clearance as equal to the volume of glomerular filtrate, and while this lessens the value of the test as a tool in the study of renal physiology it need not detract from its usefulness as a practical test of kidney function

METHODS

Hospital patients were kept in bed for the period of the test. Dispensary patients and normal subjects were allowed to sit in a chair or engage in light laboratory work. Some tests were made after fourteen hours fast the majority after a light breakfast which MacKay (10) found had no effect on the urea clearance. Three to five grams of creatinine were given by mouth an hour to one and one-half hours before the beginning of the test. At the beginning of the test, the bladder was emptied as completely as possible and a sample of venous blood obtained. Approximately an hour later, but timed to the nearest minute, the bladder

was again emptied as completely as possible and a second sample of blood obtained. If there was any doubt whether the subject could empty the bladder, he was catheterized. All blood analyses were made on scrum

Urea nitrogen in urine and serum was estimated by the gasometric method of Van Slyke (11), in a few instances by Van Slyke and Cullen's (12) method. All analyses were made in duplicate. Creatinine in urine and serum was estimated by Rehberg's (13) modification of Folin's method using a colorimeter with Burker optical system.

The ingestion of three to five grams of creatinine increases the plasma concentration to 5 to 10 mgm per cent. This decreases the effect of substances other than creatinine in plasma which give the Jaffe reaction as well as making the estimation more certain. Since Behre and Benedict (14) and Gaebler (15) have doubted the existence of creatinine in normal blood, and since Gaebler could recover only a relatively small fraction of the creatinine added to blood it was felt that the creatinine analyses had to be examined before any reliance could be placed on the calculation of creatinine clearance by the formula UV/B = C. By the method used in these experiments the average recovery of creatinine added to serum in amounts equivalent to 0.5 to 15.0 mgm per 100 cc was 93.5 per cent in 15 experiments, the extremes being 80 and 124 per cent. Table I shows

TABLE 1

Comparison of creatinine clearances calculated from total chromogenic substances and from ingested creatinine only

| _ | Before in | gestion | After in | gestion | C | tinine |
|---------|-----------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------|-----|---------|
| Name | Serum ' creatinine | Creatinine excreted | Average serum creatinine | Creatinine excreted | | rance † |
| | mgm per cent | mgm per minute | mgm per cent | mgm fer minute | A | В |
| J M H | 1 27* | 1 42* | 963 | 12 72 | 132 | 134 |
| | | | 8 31 | 10 30 | 124 | 126 |
| | | | 12 22 | 12 50 | 102 | 101 |
| White | 0 95 | 1 37 | 616 | 10 05 | 163 | 166 |
| Wilson | 1 08 | 1 59 | 8 28 | 8 08 | 106 | 100 |
| Letcher | 1 01 | 89 | 9 20 | 11 05 | 120 | 121 |

^{*} Average of 4 determinations

that there is no difference in the clearance calculated on total chromogenic substances in serum and urine after ingestion of creatinine and in the clearance calculated on ingested creatinine only. Gaebler and Keltch (16) have shown that all the chromogenic material adsorbed on Lloyd's reagent

[†] A—clearance calculated from total chromogenic substance in serum and

B—clearance calculated from ingested creatinine only, subtracting value of chromogenic substances normally present in serum and average rate of excretion of creatinine before ingestion

and released again is indistinguishable from creatinine. Therefore, a clearance calculated on the material released from Lloyd's reagent should be higher than that calculated on total chromogenic substances when no creatinine has been fed, since other substances account for a considerable fraction of the value obtained for "creatinine" in normal serum. After ingestion of creatinine, the clearances calculated before and after the use of Lloyd's reagent should show much less difference. Table II shows that

TABLE II

Comparison of creatinine clearances calculated from total chromogenic substances and from material released from Lloyd's reagent with and without ingestion of creatinine

| | Experimental number and | Urine | Te | otal creati | inine | Rele | ased from | Lloyd s |
|---|----------------------------|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------|
| | condition | Volume | Serum | Unne | Clearance | Serum | Urine | Clearance |
| | | cc per minute | mgm per cent | mgm per cent | cc per minute | mgm per cent | mgm per cent | cc per minute |
| l | No | 6 84 | 1 01 | 131 | 89 | 84 | 136 | 111 |
| 2 | creatinine | 7 07 | 1 30 | 20 | 109 | 96 | 18 | 133 |
| 3 | ıngested | 7 75 | 1 32 | 18 | 106 | 87 | 14 | 125 |
| 1 | Creatinine | 7 72 | 9 63 | 165 | 132 | 9 03 | 159 | 136 |
| 5 | ingested | 1 95 | 12 22 | 642 | 102 | 10 99 | 600 | 106 |
| 5 | _ | 9 35 | 616 | 108 | 164 | 6 02 | 101 | 157 |

this is the case. These experiments led us to believe that with serum concentrations of creatinine above 5 mgm per cent the creatinine clearance could be calculated on total chromogenic substance present in serum and urine without significant error

In order to estimate the range of creatinine clearance in normal individuals under conditions of hospital and office practice 59 clearances on 59 apparently healthy individuals were tabulated. In 45 of these, only a single test was made. In 14, from 2 to 21 clearances were determined. For these the first clearance determined was tabulated. The range in these 59 observations was from 87 to 232 cc. per minute, the mean 144 cc per minute with a standard deviation of 36 cc. When repeated tests are made of the same individual, there is a similar wide dispersion, but the limits for all clearances which we have obtained from normal individuals are only slightly wider. Nor apparently does any normal individual tend to have a constantly high or low clearance.

For this reason, it seemed proper to include all our observations (130) of normal individuals where no recognized unusual factor, such as administration of a drug or exercise, was present to show the normal chance distribution of clearances. If this be done, the range is from 70 to 238 cc. per minute, the mean 148 cc per minute with a standard deviation of 34 cc. A frequency polygram of these observations shows a decided skewness, but not sufficient to make unreasonable the belief that the chances of a single

was again emptied as completely as possible and a second sample of blood obtained. If there was any doubt whether the subject could empty the bladder, he was catheterized. All blood analyses were made on serum

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TABLE I

Comparison of creatinine clearances calculated from total chromogenic substances and from ingested creatinine only

| | Before in | gestion | After in | gestion | C | itinine |
|---------|-----------------------|---------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|-----|---------|
| Name | Serum * creatinine | Creatinine excreted | Average serum creatinine | Creatinine excreted | | rance † |
| | mgm per cent | mym per minute | mgm per cent | mgm per minute | Λ | В |
| J M H | 1 27* | 1 42* | 9 63 | 12 72 | 132 | 134 |
| | | | 8 31 | 10 30 | 124 | 126 |
| | | { | 12 22 | 12 50 | 102 | 101 |
| White | 0 95 | 1 37 | 616 | 10 05 | 163 | 166 |
| Wilson | 1 08 | 1 59 | 8 28 | 8 08 | 106 | 100 |
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that there is no difference in the clearance calculated on total chromogenic substances in serum and urine after ingestion of creatinine and in the clearance calculated on ingested creatinine only. Gaebler and Keltch (16) have shown that all the chromogenic material adsorbed on Lloyd's reagent

[†] A-clearance calculated from total chromogenic substance in serum and urine

B—clearance calculated from ingested creatinine only, subtracting value of chromogenic substances normally present in serum and average rate of excretion of creatinine before ingestion

This is a lower normal limit than Holten and Rehberg (19) use. They found the clearance always above 100 cc per minute in normal individuals when tested between 10 and 11 am. But in 89 clearances reported by Rehberg of himself where experimental conditions were more varied regarding posture and fluid intake, the clearance was 9 times between 80 and 100 cc per minute, and twice between 60 and 80 cc per minute, so that a patient cannot be said to have diminished renal function on the basis of a single creatinine clearance test between 60 and 100 cc. per minute

The maximum urea clearance in 56 observations of 25 normal individuals ranged from 38 to 112 cc. per minute, with an average of 74 68 cc per minute and a standard deviation of 1757 cc. identical with the average of 75 cc per minute found by Möller McIntosh and Van Slyke The range in our subjects is somewhat greater than the extremes of 522 and 1038 cc per minute which they found. The mean standard urea clearance in 39 observations of 26 persons was 51 cc per minute with a standard deviation of 1011 cc The range was from 30 to 67 cc per minute This is the same range found by Möller, McIntosh and Van Slyke (28 3 to 69 3 cc per minute) while the mean is but slightly lower Thus in the case of normal individuals creatinine and urea clearances have about the same degree of dispersion. The creatinine clearance is always numerically greater than the maximum urea clearance, although when the standard urea clearance is calculated using the square root of urine volume, the numerical value may be greater for urea than for creatinine clearance In estimating reduction of kidney function we have used 148 cc per minute as the average normal creatinine clearance and 75 cc and 54 cc per minute as the average normal maximum and standard urea clearances

A comparison of creatinine and urea clearances has been made 116 times on 93 patients with Bright's disease and certain other conditions (Tables III, IV and V) We have followed Addis's classification (20) of Bright's disease but have used the term acute instead of initial hemorrhagic Bright's disease Patients with degenerative Bright's disease, of whom relatively few were examined, have been grouped with the miscellaneous cases in Table V We have not had the opportunity of examining any patient in whom the diagnosis of "cryptic" degenerative Bright's disease (pure lipoid nephrosis) seemed proper Cases 107-624 and 151-532 presented a typical picture at the time of some examinations, but had had hematuria some time previously Both clearance tests frequently show marked reduction in kidney function before there is any elevation of blood urea nitrogen, decrease in two hour phenolsulphonphthalein output, or fixation of specific gravity This was shown for the urea clearance by Van Slyke and his associates (21) and for creatinine by Holten and Rehberg (19) We have not found the decrease more constant or more marked in one test than the other. Just as in normal persons, the creatinine clearance is always numerically greater than the maximum urea clearance, the

clearance of a normal adult falling between 80 and 216 are about 24 1 (Fig 1)

McIntosh, Möller and Van Slyke (17) found that more constant normal values for urea clearance were obtained if a correction was made for surface area. This seems reasonable for Taylor, Drury and Addis (18) were able to show that kidney weights in rabbits varied in proportion to surface area rather than to body weight. To avoid an error greater than \pm 5 per cent in using the formula UV/B = C, body size can be neglected only in adults between 164 and 176 cm in height. We have corrected the creatinine clearance values by the factor (1.75/A) where A is surface area

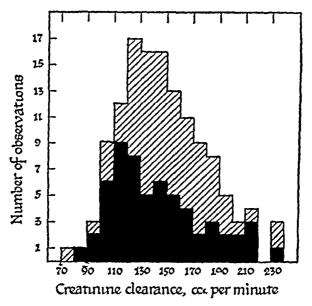


Fig 1 Frequency Polygram of 130 Creatinine Clearance Values on 59 Normal Adults

The solid area includes only the first observation made on each person

in square meters. This amounted to more than 10 per cent in 5 instances. The average of the corrected clearances is 145 ± 34 cc per minute, and the dispersion practically the same as for the uncorrected values. Since other unknown factors produce a much greater variation in clearances done on the same individual at different times than the amount of the correction for surface area, we feel that this correction is unnecessary in the case of adults except possibly for those of extreme heights. We have not applied the correction in the patients studied

From our experience with normal subjects and patients suffering from various diseases, we have come to believe that creatinine clearances below 60 cc per minute (41 per cent of average normal) are definitely abnormal, and those between 60 and 80 cc per minute (41 to 54 per cent average normal) doubtful but significant if a repeated test is in the same range

This is a lower normal limit than Holten and Rehberg (19) use. They found the clearance always above 100 cc per minute in normal individuals when tested between 10 and 11 nm. But in 89 clearances reported by Rehberg of himself where experimental conditions were more varied regarding posture and fluid intake, the clearance was 9 times between 80 and 100 cc per minute, and twice between 60 and 80 cc per minute, so that a patient cannot be said to have diminished renal function on the basis of a single creatinine clearance test between 60 and 100 cc per minute.

The maximum urea clearance in 56 observations of 25 normal individuals ranged from 38 to 112 cc per minute, with an average of 74 68 cc per minute, and a standard deviation of 17 57 cc., identical with the average of 75 cc per minute found by Möller, McIntosh and Van Slyke The range in our subjects is somewhat greater than the extremes of 522 and 1038 cc per minute which they found The mean standard urea clearance in 39 observations of 26 persons was 51 cc per minute with a standard deviation of 1011 cc The range was from 30 to 67 cc. per minute. This is the same range found by Möller, McIntosh and Van Slyke (28.3 to 69.3 cc per minute) while the mean is but shightly lower Thus in the case of normal individuals creatinine and urea clearances have about the same degree of dispersion The creatinine clearance is always numerically greater than the maximum urea clearance, although when the standard urea clearance is calculated using the square root of urine volume the numerical value may be greater for urea than for creatinine clearance In estimating reduction of kidney function we have used 148 cc per minute as the present of the as the average normal creatinine clearance and 75 cc. and 54 cc per minute as the average normal maximum and standard urea clearances

A comparison of creatinine and urea clearances has been made 116 times on 93 patients with Bright's disease and certain other conditions (Tables III IV and V) We have followed Addiss classification (20) of Bright's disease but have used the term acute instead of initial hemorphisms. Patients with degenerative Bright's disease, of thagic Bright's disease.

TABLE 111
Creatinine and urea clearances in patients with hemorrhagic Bright's disease

| | Drte of derth | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------------|-------------------------|-----------|----------|----------|-----------|----------|---------|--------|---------|---------|----------|-----------|-----------|------------------------|----------------|-----------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------------|------------------------|---------------|----------------|
| | Per cent of normal | | 37 | 19 | 26 | 5, | 112 | 26 | 47 | - G | 3 | 9 | 73 | Ş | 28 | 53 | 139 | 20 | 3 | 2 | ``` | 25 | 23 |
| 20000 | Per Creatinine normal | ce per minule | 55 | 16 | 83 | 80 | 166 | 30 | 3 | 88 | 73 | 56 | 99 | 73 | Ξ | 98 | 206 | 30 | 68 | 286 | 11 | = 5 | 95. |
| 9 | | | 44 | 89 | 19 | 44 | 123 | 2.4 | 7 | 6 | 9 | 28 | 77 | 37 | 29 | 31 | 83 | 17 | 14 | 10 | 1 | 2 % | 9.8 |
| 9 | Uren cleamnce | ce per | 328 | 510 | 32 8* | 333 | 92.5 | 12.7* | 21.9* | 369 | 31.2 | 43.2 | 22.3* | 27.8 | 21.4 | 166 | 62.2 | 914 | 29 1* | | 7.7 | 200 | 20 0 |
| | Blood urea nitrogen | mgm per cent | 165 | 336 | 100 | 253 | 9 8 | 349 | 140 | 18 0 | 6 | 21.7 | 311 | 9.2 | 182 | 266 | 8 | 798 | 24.2 | 288 | 17.6 | | 11 2 |
| | Phenol- Blood sulphon uren | per cent 111.3 hours | 80 | | 55 | | | 70 | 20 | | | | | | 89 | 30 | | 29 | 8 | 20 | C S | 25 | 2 |
| 1 | Blood | mm Hg | 110/70 | 1 10/100 | 135/80 | 1 10/80 | 115/80 | 190/120 | 110/90 | 120/80 | | | | | 180/100 | 130/80 | 115/70 | 115/15 | 1 10/100 | 115/80 | 160/110 | 105/70 | |
| oranges of subsection of the s | Strge of disease | | Acute | Acute | Acute | Acute | Acute | Acute | Latent | Latent | Litent | Latent | Latent | Latent | Chronic active 180/100 | Chronic active | Chronic active 115/70 | Chronic active | Chronic active | Chrome active 115/80 | Chronic active 160/110 | Chrome active | Chronic active |
| | nte | | 17, 1932 | 28, 1932 | 26, 1933 | 26, 1932 | 23, 1933 | 25, | 27, | 2 | เก๋ | <u>.</u> | 7 | 30, 1933 | ٠ | 0 | 12, 1932 | 5 | = | တဲ | 23 | | |
| | α | | May | לחרוותר | Junary | October . | Lebruary | June | August | Decembe | לזרוותר | לזרוותר | לשרוווורן | לשרשווו ל | לחרוווורל | April | לשניווורל | April | Novembe | October | November | November | Decembe |
| | Аве | Scars | | 33 | <u> </u> | ç | 27 | 71 | | | | | | | ξ; | | | | × 1 | | ~; | 32 | |
| | Ze J | 1 | <u></u> ; | 7, | 7; | = : | ; | = | | | | | | ; | =; | = ; | - | ; | _ : | 7 | <u>_</u> | 7 | |
| | Hospital | 1 | 116-625 | 116-212 | 110-155 | 145-211 | 150-822 | 149-331 | | | | | | | 77-75 | 017-011 | 170-701 | | C16-611 | 77/-01 | 140-016 | 150-001 | |

TABLE III--(Continued)

| Hospital number | Ä | Age | Date | | Stage of disease | Blood | Phenol sulphon phthalein | Blood urea nitrogen | Urea | Per cent of normal | Per Creatinine cont of clearance | Per cent of normal | Date of death | death |
|--------------------|----------|-------|------------------|------|------------------------|----------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------|---------------|---------|
| | | 36673 | | | | mm HE | per cent en Shours | mem per cent | cc per minute | | cc per | | | |
| 151-107 | ᄕ | 35 | 7 10 | 1933 | Chronic active 120/70 | 120/70 | 28 | | 44 0* | 82 | 79 | 53 | | |
| 118-347 | Z | 54 | 7 | 1931 | Chronic active 130/80 | 130/80 | 8 | 7.5 | 0 / 9 | 68 | 88 | 8 | | |
| | | | | 931 | Chronic active 140/100 | 140/100 | 20 | 113 | 349 | 47 | 47 | 32 | | |
| 142-123 | Z | 51 | September 28, 19 | 1931 | Chronic active 155/85 | 155/85 | 8 | 190 | 24 4 | 33 | 2 | 47 | | |
| 144-018 | ſz, | 28 | December 8, 19 | 1931 | Chronic active 165/90 | 165/90 | 65 | 149 | 24 6* | 46 | 53 | 36 | | |
| 142-730 | Z | 34 | October 2, 1 | 931 | Chronic active 185/110 | 185/110 | | 140 | 18 2* | 34 | 47 | 32 | | |
| | | | | 932 | Chronic active 205/135 | 205/135 | | 303 | 13.8* | 26 | 53 | 70 | | |
| | | | ₹ | 933 | Terminal | 190/130 | 9 | 286 | 149 | 20 | 70 | 14 | March | 1, 1933 |
| 86-642 | 124 | 31 | 28 | 1932 | Chronic active | 110/80 | 52 | 240 | 119 | 16 | 28 | 19 | | |
| | _ | _ | y 25 | 933 | Chronic active | | | 24.7 | 93 | 12 | 26 | 18 | | |
| 145-429 | Z | 43 | March 1 1 | 932 | Latent | 135/80 | 2 | 140 | 101 0 | 135 | 149 | 101 | | |
| 0-343-184 | 4 | 29 | Ġ | 1933 | Latent | 160/100 | | 8 9 | 0.29 | 81 | 126 | 85 | | |
| 134-772 | Z | 25 | July 20 1 | 931 | Terminal | 160/110 | | 124 | 21 5* | 40 | 46 | 31 | November 28 | |
| 89-697 | Ζ. | 55 | 4, | 932 | Terminal | 180/110 | מי | 1110 | 39* | 7 | 9 | 'n | May | |
| 145-811 | = | 6 | 28 | 932 | Terminal | 140/70 | S | 1880 | *90 | | 0.5 | 0 34 | April | |
| 117-565 | 124 | 20 | r 19 | 1631 | _ | 150/110 | 10 | 52 4 | 3 8* | 7 | 80 | 0 | February | |
| 151-508 | <u> </u> | 27 | March 3 1 | 933 | Terminal | 260/150 | 01 | 200 | *55 | 10 | 12.0 | | March | |
| 147-812 | 4 | 49 | 56 | 932 | Terminal | 110/60 | 'n | 1190 | *60 | 7 | 0.4 | 03 | July | 28 1932 |
| | | | | | | | | | | | -(| - | | 1 |

* Standard clearances

TABLY III
Creatinine and urea clearances in patients with hemorrhagic Bright's disease

| | Dite of denth | |
|---|---|---|
| | Per cent of normal | 55 51 112 112 123 133 133 133 133 133 133 13 |
| scase | Creatinine | 25 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 5 |
| gur s ar | Per cent of normal | 68 61 61 61 63 64 64 64 65 64 64 64 64 64 64 64 64 64 64 64 64 64 |
| וות שוצחוו | Uren elenrunce | 2. 2. 3. 4. 2. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. |
| nemon . | Blood uren nitrogen | 25 3 16 5 10 0 25 3 6 10 0 0 25 3 6 25 3 6 25 3 6 25 3 6 25 3 6 25 3 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 |
| tus com | Phenol- Blood sulphon urer phtkalein nitrogen | ###################################### |
| and are s | Blood | |
| organization and incorected and purions with nematingle drights assense | Strge of discase | Acute 110/70 Acute 110/100 Acute 110/100 Acute 1135/80 Acute 110/80 Acute 110/80 Acute 110/80 Acute 110/80 Latent 110/90 Latent 110/90 Latent 110/90 Latent 110/90 Chronic active 130/100 Chronic active 115/45 Chronic active 115/45 Chronic active 115/80 Chronic active 115/80 Chronic active 115/80 Chronic active 115/80 Chronic active 115/80 Chronic active 115/80 Chronic active 115/80 Chronic active 115/80 Chronic active 115/80 Chronic active 115/80 Chronic active 115/80 Chronic active 115/80 Chronic active 115/80 Chronic active 115/80 Chronic active 115/80 Chronic active 115/80 Chronic active 115/80 Chronic active 115/80 Chronic active 115/80 |
| | Dite | May 17, 1932 Junuary 28, 1932 October 26, 1933 October 26, 1933 June 25, 1931 December 27, 1931 Junuary 19, 1933 Junuary 19, 1933 Junuary 19, 1933 Junuary 23, 1933 Junuary 19, 1933 April 26, 1932 April 26, 1932 October 3, 1932 November 21, 1932 November 21, 1932 November 21, 1932 November 21, 1932 November 21, 1932 |
| | | May Junuary October February June August Decembo Junuary Junuary Junuary Junuary Junuary Junuary Junuary Mptil Novembo October Novembo |
| | Аяс | 33 33 20 20 20 27 27 12 15 15 15 21 33 |
| | χος | LEERE EN LELT |
| | Hospital number | 116-625 116-212 136-555 118-311 150-822 139-831 16-216 107-621 119-975 139-722 119-916 150-097 |

867

TABLE III-(Continued)

| | Date of death | March I 1933 March I 1933 November 28, 1932 April I 1933 February 21, 1933 March 4, 1933 July 28, 1933 |
|----------|--|--|
| | Per cent of normal | 53 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 |
| | Creatinin | a bar manute 79 88 88 847 70 70 53 53 53 54 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 74 |
| į | Per cent of normal | 28 82 3 45 3 45 3 45 3 45 3 45 3 45 3 45 45 45 45 45 45 45 45 45 45 45 45 45 |
| | Urea clearance | C. Per Musulfe 640 6410 349 244 224 1182 1182 119 91 119 91 119 91 119 91 319 318 318 66 318 318 318 318 318 318 318 318 318 318 |
| / | Blood urea nitrogen | ###################################### |
| | Phenol Blood sulphon urea phthalein nitrogen | 11 |
| (manual) | Blood | 777 120/70 130/80 140/100 155/85 155/85 155/85 190/130 190/130 160/110 160/110 150/110 150/110 150/110 |
| | Stage of disease | Chronic active 120/70 Chronic active 130/80 Chronic active 140/100 Chronic active 145/90 Chronic active 155/90 Chronic active 165/90 Chronic active 165/90 Chronic active 100/130 Chronic active 110/80 Terminal 180/110 Terminal 180/110 Terminal 180/110 Terminal 160/100 |
| | Date | 10 1933 2, 1931 1, 2, 1931 1, 2, 1931 1, 2, 1931 1, 2, 1931 1, 1931 2, 1932 1, 1932 1, 1932 2, 1933 1, 1932 1, 1932 1, 1932 2, 1933 1, 1932 1, 1933 1, |
| | Ä | February 10 October 2, November 2 September 3 September 3 October 2, October 2, April 6 January 4 October 28 March 1 April 6 July 20, February 4 October 1 July 20, March 28 October 1 July 20, March 28 |
| | Age | 335 34 54 51 28 34 34 34 34 34 34 34 35 52 52 52 52 52 52 54 52 54 54 54 54 54 54 54 54 54 54 54 54 54 |
| ł | 8 | FM MTM F MTM MT |
| | Hospital | 151-107 118-347 142-123 144-018 142-730 145-429 0-343-184 135-697 145-811 117-568 117-568 |

* Standard clearances

TABLE IV
Creatining and urea clearances in patients with arteriosclerotic Bright's disease

| | Date of death | | | | June 28 1932 | | August 27, 1932 | i | | | December 15 1012 | December 13, 1732 | | | | | | | | |
|-------|---------------------------------|-------------|-----------|---------|--------------|---------|-----------------|---------|-----------|----------|------------------|-------------------|---------|----------|-----------|---------|----------|---------|------------------|----------|
| | Per cent of normal | | 78 | 7.5 | 99 | 99 | 32 | 62 | 55 | 33 | 5 5 | , 2 | 2 1 | : = | 2 9 | 2 2 | 2,2 | · · |) o: | 35 |
| . - | Creatinine clearance | ce per | 116 | 111 | 98 | 98 | 47 | - 6 | 81 | 78 | 7.3 | 2.5 | | 3 62 | 20.5 | , v | 3,5 | 3 5- | 12 | 52 |
| : - | Per cent of normal | | 62 | 77 | 46 | 59 | 20 | 83 | 70 | 97 | 25 | 30 | 3 3 | 25 | 200 | 200 | 75 | | . 6 | 61 |
| | Ures clestrance | ce per | 468 | 41 7* | 318 | 318* | 268* | 44.8* | 37 8* | 726 | 346 | 20 1 | 34.54 | 13.7* | 16.4* | * 60 50 | *1 CF | 3.2 | 21.5 | 10 3* |
| 11_ | Blood urca nitrogen | mgm per | | 13.2 | 112 | 169 | 319 | 154 | 200 | 22.5 | 29 1 | 15.2 | 201 | 16.5 | 196 | 23.1 | 20.5 | 36.4 | 47.0 | 203 |
| | Phenol- sulphon phthylein | per cent in | | 30 | 20 | 52 | 25 | | 55 | 20 | 9 | 55 | 30 | 9 | 20 | | 9 | 10 | 01 | 55 |
| | Blood | mm IIR | 220/110 | 260/160 | 150/110 | 200/130 | 230/170 | 110/80 | 200/100 | 198/130 | 210/150 | 300/165 | 275/151 | 235/155 | 200/100 | 150/90 | 170/95 | 180/100 | 165/90 | 190/125 |
| | Drie | | 9 | 19 | હ | - | 29, | 23, | | 18, | 17, | ο, | 12, | တ် | 29, | 23 | ~ | 7 | January 10, 1933 | 16, |
| | Апе | 3 cars | == | = | 21 | 29 | | S | 79 | 28 | 38 | 8 | = | 55 | 36 | = | 2 | | | = |
| | X3. | | <u>_</u> | 7 | 7 | Z | | ۴. | 7 | <u>.</u> | <u>_</u> | <u>_</u> | ۲ | <u>_</u> | <u>نـ</u> | Z | <u>_</u> | | : | <u> </u> |
| | Hospital | | 0-318-091 | 105-700 | 126-997 | 115-997 | | 110-731 | 0-130-611 | 150-795 | 113-350 | 87-720 | 135-051 | 119-162 | 150-053 | 113-018 | 138-277 | | | 886-171 |

TABLE IV (Continued)

| | Date of death | | | | | November 9 1932 | | | | September 27 1931 | | 7 | | ء د | December 11 1932 | 1 | | 23 | 2 5 | 10 | Ē | 2 2 | 2 6 | August 5 1931 | |
|---|--------------------------------|----------------------|---------|---------|----------|-----------------|---------|---------------|------------------|-------------------|-------------|--------------|---------|---------|------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------------|---|
| | Per cent of normal | | 30 | စ္တ | 2,1 | 75 | 23 | 6 | 22 | 22 | ~ | 18 | 7 | 12 | 2 | , | 2 | w | V. | | . ~ | | 7 | 0 4 | |
| | Creatinine clearance | ce per menule | 45 | 45 | 40 | 35 | 34 | 13 | 32 | 32 | 11 | 27 | 21 | 8 | 7. | 1 | 7 | 7 | | - 4 | 4 64 | ۰, ۳ | , , | 90 | |
| } | Per cent of normal | | 43 | 36 | 25 | 21 | 50 | 13 | 34 | 54 | 1 | 22 | 22 | 17 | 2 | 32 | 6 | 7 | - 00 | • | 90 | 7.0 | 30.6 | 0.4 | _ |
| | Urea clearance | ce per minute | 23 4* | 19 2 | 28 1* | 11 2* | 15 4* | 8 1* | 256 | 29 2* | 0 7* | 186 | 16.5 | 12.9 | 5 2* | 17.5* | 50* | 38 | *1* | 1.7* | 0.3 | 3.6 | 1,1 | 0.2* | _ |
| | Blood urea nitrogen | mgm per cent | 22.8 | 298 | 17.4 | 350 | 406 | 53 5 | 180 | 74.1 | 1090 | 49 7 | 494 | 105 7 | 57.4 | 763 | 469 | 1560 | 61.5 | 131.5 | 232.0 | 1180 | 88 9 | 1630 | _ |
| | Phenol sulphon phthalein | per cent in hours | 20 | 52 | Q | 33 | 22 | 15 | 'n | ro | 22 | | 18 | 'n | 21 | 2 | | | v | | | 65 | LC) |) | |
| | Blood | mm Hg | 220/30 | 260/140 | 170/120 | 225/145 | 220/135 | 245/150 | 170/116 | 240/140 | 220/160 | | 245/150 | 200/160 | 260/130 | 150/90 | 160/110 | 170/80 | 230/140 | 230/110 | 160/100 | 250/170 | 230/110 | 235/130 | _ |
| | Date | | | | 7 | = | | March 14 1933 | September 2 1931 | 3 | July 6 1932 | July 23 1932 | 31 | œ | Ŋ | er 24 | 13 | 22 | 22, | - | 19 | 6 | 11 | | |
| | Age | years | 52 | 26 | 25 | 38 | 39 | _ | 38 | 55 | 8 | _ | 48 | 4 | 58 | 43 | | 8 | 32 | 45 | 26 | 43 | 9 | 47 | |
| | ķ | | Z | = | 7 | ſĿ, | Σ | | щ | Ξ | Z | | ы | Z | Z | ഥ | _ | iz, | بن | 'n | Z | Ŀ | Ŀ | Z | _ |
| | Hospital | | 151-530 | 141-842 | 125-983 | 144-079 | 150-478 | | 142-341 | 142-324 | 146-857 | | 148-705 | 149-634 | 149-237 | 125-448 | | 150-929 | 134-806 | 144-535 | 146-471 | 91-504 | 147-168 | 141-832 | |

* Standard clearances

Creatinine and urea clearances in patients with descinerative Mright's disease

| | | | | | ביים ביים ביים ביים ביים ביים ביים ביים | ackard. | מוווני בסו | 1gar 5 c | 175CQ3C Q | na cera | ווו סוווכו | aiscasc | ži | |
|------------|-----------|-----------|-------------------|----------------------|---|---------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|---|--------|--------------|
| Hospital | Y. | ЛКС | Drte | 9 | Diagnosis | Blood | Phenol sulphon phtha- lein | Blood urea nitro gen | Uren clear- ance | Per cent of normal | Crent- inine cleur- nnce | Per cent of normal | Dite | Due of derth |
| | | Stars | | | | ян Ив | per cent | mkm | 20, 20 | | ce per | | | |
| 150-775 | æ | 23 | Junury | 12, 1932 | Degenerative Bright's disease | 155/100 | 55 | 12.5 | 23.7* | ** | 56 | 38 | | |
| | | | March | 20, 1933 | and eclampsia Degenerative | | | 13.7 | 313 | 23 | 11 | 52 | | |
| 151-532 NI | Z | == | March | 6, 1933 | Dright's disease Degenerative | 150/95 | 12 | 26 1 | 29 6 | 33 | 41 | 28 | | |
| 151-057 | | 21 | February | 1, 1933 | Bright's disease Degenerative | 165/120 | | 1 09 | 17.5* | 32 | 21 | ======================================= | | |
| | | | April | 3, 1933 | Degenerative | 158/100 | 05 | 7 | 25.70 | 5 | ž | Ę | | |
| 110-075 | ۲ | 38 | December 29, 1932 | . 29, 1932 | Bright's discuse Diribetes and | 150/90 | | 27.3 | 33.0* | : 3 | 13 6 | : 8 | | |
| 110-793 M | Z | 53 | January | 21, 1933 | arterioselerosis Diabetes and | 150/100 | 26 | 32 2 | 181 | 2 2 | 32 | 22 | | |
| 0-320- | 7 | 23 | ไาถนาย | 11, 1933 | arteriosclerosis Diabetes and | 240/110 | | 161 | 19 6* | 36 | 51 | . | | |
| 111-30 | <u>بر</u> | <u>s</u> | January | 27, 1932 | arterioscierosis Diabetes and | 230/130 | 20 | 9.1 | 12 0 | 78 | 65 | -A1 | | |
| 136-525 11 | 7 | <u>ير</u> | October Vugust | 25, 1930 15, 1932 | Diribetes insipidus Diribetes insipidus | 130/85 | | 110 | 39.5 | 51 | 101 | 5.5 | | ; ; |
| | | | | | | | | 2 | 3 | 00 | 2 | c C | rugust | 27, 1932 |

TABLE V (Continued)

| Date of death | | | November 30, 1932 | | June 21, 1932 | | November 30, 1932 | | September 14 1931 | September 27, 1931 | March 18, 1932 | January 13 1933 | November 18 1931 | December 18, 1931 | 77 | March 18, 1932 |
|------------------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------|-------------------------|---|--------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|-------------------|-------------------|----------------|----------------|
| Per cent of normal | | 80 | 30 | SS | 19 | 55 | 14 | 26 | 88 | 105 | 156 | 79 | 16 | 3 | 9 | 1.4 |
| Creat inine clear ance | cc. per minute | 119 | 4 | 74 | 78 | 81 | 70 | 88 | 145 | 155 | 231 | 38 | 23 | S | 6 | 7 |
| Per cent of normal | | 137 | 22 | 39 | 27 | 53 | 69 | 85 | 56 | 115 | 141 | 15 | 13 | S | 13 | 1.5 |
| Urea clear ance | ce per mınule | 103 0 | 11.8* | 21 1* | 14.5* | 28 7* | 37 0* | 63.5 | 30 0* | 62 0* | 760* | 83* | 9 45 | 3.5 | 10* | *80 |
| Blood urea nitro gen | mgm per | | 564 | 150 | 6.5 | 169 | 7.0 | 19 2 | 414 | 150 | 19.5 | 650 | 183 0 | 1370 | 73.5 | 175 0 |
| Phenol sulphon phtha lein | per cent in S hours | 80 | | | | 10 | | | | | | | | Ŋ | 20 | Тласе |
| Blood | тт НЕ | 160/110 | 125/70 | 110/70 | 170/90 | 110/55 | 09/06 | 110/65 | 125/75 | 130/70 | 92/60 | 110/80 | | 125/80 | 108/78 | 130/76 |
| Diagnosis | | Essential Hyper | tension Carcinoma of | stomacn and arteriosclerosis Carcinoma of | bronchus Carcinoma of | stomach Carcinoma of | prostate Carcinoma of pan | creas and jaundice Pneumonia | Pneumonia | Pneumonia | Pneumonia | Рлентопта | Pneumonia | Pyelonephritis | Pyelonephritis | Pyelonephritis |
| Date | | August 22 1932 | November 28, 1932 | December 5, 1932 | June 10 1932 | May 6 1932 | November 25 1932 | April 7 1932 | mber 12 | ber 25 | March 11 1932 | January 12 1933 | November 16, 1931 | ber 8, | July 19, 1932 | |
| Age | years | 23 | 29 | 49 | 99 | 75 | 22 | 22 | 56 | 36 | 27 | 21 | 36 | 7 | 34 | 22 |
| S | | M | ſz, | Z | إكب | Z | [I4 | Z | | _ | | | Ξ. | Ξ, | <u> </u> | - |
| Hospital | | 133-845 | 149-816 | 149-535 | 122-258 | 146-484 | 149-077 | 146-070 | 142-587 | 142-828 | 145-644 | 150-738 | 143-756 | 144-053 | 147-549 | 85-750 |

TABLE V (Continued)

| Drte of denth | | Tanuary 28 1932 | | | | | | | | | | September 8, 1931 | | |
|-------------------------------------|------------|-------------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------|---------------|----------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------|----------------|---------------------|----------------------|-----|
| Per cent of normal | | | 000 | 106 0 | 2 | 16 | 77 | 30 | 99 | 39 | 16 | 71 | | |
| Crent Inine elents | ce per | menule 2 | 1.17 | 157 | 80 | 89 | 21 | 44 | 98 | 57 | 24 | 33 | | |
| Per cent of normal | | 33 | 6 | 32 | ဂ္ဂ | 57 | 16 | 36 | 83 | 73 | 32 | נעו | | |
| Uren cleur- ance | ce per | 14. | 089 | 316* | 0 / 5 | 426 | 12 1 | 27.3 | 14 8* | 39 4* | 24.3 | 2.5* | | - |
| Blood uren nitro- gen | mgm per | 217 0 | 7 8 | 111 | 2 | 16.5 | 57.2 | 32.3 | 10 8 | 145 | 30 6 | 88 7 | | |
| Phenol sulphon phthr- lein | per cent | Truce 2170 | 8 | 43 | 3 | | 40 | | | | 15 | Trice | | |
| Blood | ян ни | 130/75 | 180/140 | 130/85 | oo/ot- | | 120/90 | | 115/55 | 110/70 | 160/90 | 105/60 | | |
| Dingnosis | | Bismuth poisoning | and pyclonephritis Arteriosclerosis | Arteriosclerosis Hypertrophica | nrostate | Hypertrophied | Flypertrophied | prostate IIs pertrophied | prostate Pernicious anemia | Citrilosis of liver | Subreute endo- | Streptococcic sept- | interstitial acphri- | tis |
| ຍ | | 18, 1932 | r 30, 1931 | 13, 1932 | | 14, 1933 | 21, 1933 | 5, 1933 | 14, 1932 | | 15, 1933 | 26, 1931 | | |
| Date | | Լոոսու | November | March 13, 1932 | | April | March | April | April | 1 coruity | March | August | | |
| AFC | Scars | 20 | 39 | = 2 | | | 65 | | 59 | | 20 | 61 | | _ |
| Sex Ape | | Z | اشا | _ % | | | Z | | 71 | • | 7 | <u> </u> | | |
| Hospital number | | 111-710 | 113-816 | 151-612 | | | 151-583 M | | 116-177 VI | | 111-512 | 111-891 T | | |

Strudted elegenees

standard urea clearance, however, may have a greater numerical value than the creatinine clearance determined at the same time, since the concentration ratio is multiplied by the square root of urine volume in the former and by the volume in the latter

A direct comparison of the two clearance tests is shown in Figure 2 in which the results of each test are plotted as percentage of average normal

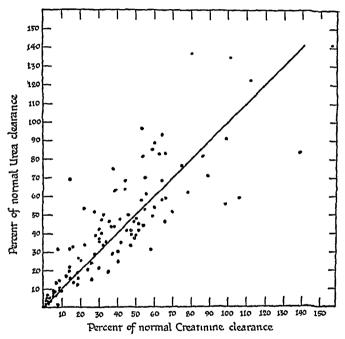


Fig 2 Comparison of Creatinine and Urea Clearance Tests in Patients with Bright's Disease and Certain Other Conditions

Points above the line indicate instances in which the urea clearance showed less reduction than creatinine, those below instances in which the percentage reduction in urea clearance was greater. In patients with creatinine clearances below 10 per cent of average normal there is not much difference in the degree of reduction of the two tests. In 82 creatinine clearances between 10 and 80 per cent of average normal, the urea clearance was reduced to a greater degree in 32, while in 50 it was not reduced to the same extent. These differences are of questionable significance when the

TABLE V (Continued)

| Drte of derth | | January 28, 1932 | | | | | | | | | September 8, 1931 | |
|-------------------------------------|------------------|-------------------|------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|---|---------------------------------|-------------------|-----|
| Per cent of normal | | | 0 66 | 1060 | 2 4 | 2 - | 30 | 3 % | £ ; | o , | 4 | |
| Creat- inine cleur- ance | ce per | 2 | 147 | 157 | 3 % | 3 5 | : # | 86 | 57 | 7, 7, | , | - |
| Per cent of normal | | 65 | 91 | 50 | 2 5 | 3 2 | 36 | 83 | 73 | , r | , | |
| Urea clear- | ce per minule | 14. | | 316* | | | 27.3 | 418 | 39.4* | 2 4 5 |) } | |
| Blood uren nitro gen | mgm per | 217 0 | 7.8 | 111 | 16.5 | 57.2 | 32.3 | 108 | 14.5 | 38.7 | } | |
| Phenol sulphon phthr- lein | fer cent | Trace 217 0 | | 43 85 | 1 | 40 | | | ¥ | Trice | } | |
| Blood | тт Ив | 130/75 | 180/110 | 130/85 | • | 120/90 | | 115/55 | 110/70 | 09/501 | | |
| Diagnosis | | Bismuth poisoning | Arteriosclerosis | Arteriosclerosis Hypertrophied | prostate Hypertrophied | prostnte Hypertrophied | prostate Hypertrophied | prostate Pernicious anemia | Cirrhosis of liver and juindice Subscribe endo. | carditis Streptococcic sept- | icemin and acute | tıs |
| ē. | | 18, 1932 | 130, 1931 | 13, 1932 21, 1933 | 14, 1933 | 21, 1933 | 5, 1933 | | 15, 1933 | 26, 1931 | | |
| Date | | January | Novembe | March | April | March | April | April | 1 contains | August | | |
| УРС | Stars | 20 | 39 | 35 | | 65 | | 59 | 30 | 19 | | |
| Ŗ | | Z | <u> </u> | . 7 | | M | | 7.1 | . 7 | 느 | | |
| Hospital | | 111-710 | 113-816 | 151-612 | | 151-583 | | 116-177 | 111-512 | 111-891 | | |

* Standard clearances

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wide range of normal variation in both tests is remembered. The most that can be said in favor of the creatinine test is that it may indicate a greater decrease in function more frequently than the urea clearance, but not with enough regularity to make up for the greater technical difficulty of the test. Nor have we been able to find any group of patients or any pathological condition in which the results of one test are consistently different from those of the other.

Since the creatinine test is more laborious and expensive, involving the ingestion of creatinine and the analysis of two blood samples, we do not believe it has any advantage in the routine estimation of the degree of impairment of kidney function in the clinic. If it can be satisfactorily shown that the creatinine clearance does approximate the volume of glomerular filtrate, then a comparison of the two tests, run simultaneously, will permit a much more intimate analysis of the parts played by variations in the volume of filtrate and degree of back diffusion in health and disease (19)

CONCLUSIONS

The creatinine and urea clearance tests have been compared in normal persons and in patients with Bright's disease. The mean creatinine clearance in 130 observations of 59 normal subjects was 148 cc. per minute. The variability of the two tests from the mean normal was approximately the same in our hands.

In patients with Bright's disease the creatinine and tirea clearance tests are generally equally reduced in relation to the average normal. We were unable to demonstrate any practical advantage in the creatinine test to compensate for its greater technical difficulty.

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EXPERIMENTS ON THE RELATION OF CREATININE AND UREA CLEARANCE TESTS OF KIDNEY FUNCTION AND THE NUMBER OF GLOMERULI IN THE HUMAN KIDNEY OBTAINED AT AUTOPSY

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(Received for publication May 1 1933)

Correlation of the results of tests of renal function with the pathological changes in the kidney has proved extremely difficult To cite a simple example in the marked proteinuria of degenerative Bright's disease, lesions of the glomeruli may be either slight or undiscoverable, while the tubule cells are strikingly abnormal And yet, by far the greatest part of the protein is believed to have been excreted through the glomeruli difficulties have led many students to the conclusion that alterations of kidney function are independent of the nature of the anatomical changes in the kidney Fortunately for the clinician, the results of kidney function tests can be expressed in relation to the normal, without regard to the nature or the anatomical site of the condition which has produced the abnormality The average amount of urea excreted per minute by a normal individual with high urine volumes is equal to the urea contained in 75 cc of blood (1) If it is only equivalent to that contained in 20 cc of blood kidney function may be said to be reduced without any intimation whether this reduction is brought about by diminished blood flow decrease in the amount of renal tissue increased reabsorption of urea by the tubules or diminished secretion. But an attempt to discover the mechanism of such reductions in function is irresistible to one concerned with the study of kidney disease

Van Slyke and his collaborators (2), from a comparison of "terminal" urea clearance values and autopsy findings suggested that in hemorrhagic and degenerative Bright's disease one may interpret the blood urea clearance as a measure of the proportion of glomerular tissue still functioning while in arteriolar sclerosis it appeared proportional to the decrease in renal blood flow rather than to the glomerular destruction Addis (3) used the ratio (urea in 1 hour's urine/blood urea concentration) (which under his conditions can be converted into maximum urea clearance by multiplying by 167), as a measure of the extent of the renal lesion—"the amount

little difference in the proportion of uninjected glomeruli. Any kidney in which a visible infarct was produced was discarded, or cut out and weighed and allowance made for it. It is assumed that the glomeruli are uniformly distributed throughout the suspension. Thorough mixing before sampling is essential. The variation in the counts of different aliquots is chiefly due to insufficient mixing. From 3 to 20 aliquots were counted, the standard deviation calculated and the estimate shown to be significant according to Fisher's (8) method of calculation. It is further assumed that the numbers of glomeruli in the two kidneys of the same individual are equal within about 10 per cent. This was shown for the rabbit by Hayman and Starr (9), for the human by Moore (10)

Estimations of the number of glomeruli in the normal human kidney vary from 560 000 to 5,700,000 by different methods. By injection of iron salts and acid digestion Vimtrup (11) found 833,992 to 1,233,360 and Moore 800,000 to 1,000,000 with occasional values as low as 600 000 and as high as 1,200,000. Our series includes 12 kidneys from persons without histological evidence of significant abnormalities in the glomeruli or blood vessels. The counts ranged from 800,000 to 1530,000. The mean was 1,156 000 and the standard deviation 191 266. This means that counts differing by more than twice the standard deviation, or below 773,000, probably indicate a significant decrease in the number of glomeruli, while those differing by more than three times the standard deviation or below 582 000 certainly do

Table I shows the comparison of creatinine and urea clearance tests with the estimated number of glomeruli in one kidney of 34 persons. We have followed Addis's classification of Bright's disease. In arteriosclerotic Bright's disease, decrease in clearances was associated with progressive reduction in the number of injected glomeruli. There were only 2 patients with active hemorrhagic Bright's disease and in one of these the estimate of the number of glomeruli is not significantly low. The other showed about the same reduction in clearance tests and glomeruli as the sclerotic group. Since in both chronic hemorrhagic Bright's disease and arterio sclerotic Bright's disease the patency of the renal vessels is reduced to

¹ An example of the method of calculation Hospital number 149-512 Weight of kidney before perfusion 163 grams after perfusion 254 grams Weight of pieces taken for histological section 2 grams After digestion diluted to 16 liters. Counts on 2 cc aliquots 153–155. 147–189–118–148, 154, 96–117, 111 Mean 138.8 Standard deviation 27. From these data, t calculated by the method of Fisher is 15.85 and the mean therefore significant. Estimate of total from mean 1,110,400. Correction for 2 grams taken for histological sections 8.812. Corrected estimate of count 1.119,212. In a count of 1.075 glomeruli from 3 blocks in sections so spaced that no glomerulus was counted twice, 1.052 contained injection mass. 23 apparently patent glomeruli did not. Correction for uninjected patent glomeruli. 24.465. Final estimate of patent glomeruli. 1.143,400.

of renal tissue which has been rendered functionless by the discuse process." He did not attempt to distinguish between actual decrease in mass of tissue present and decreased accomplishment of a normal kidney mass. Thus should the ratio be reduced, let us say half normal, by removal of one kidney or by poisoning both kidneys even by a poison from which recovery could take place the two results would be considered the same—in each half the renal tissue had ceased to work

Decrease in the creatinine clearance test has usually been ascribed to decrease in the volume of glomerular filtrate (4). Such a reduction could be due to decrease in blood flow, blood pressure or filtering surface. On the other hand, if the tubule cells were so damaged that they were unable to resist back diffusion of creatinine filtered through the glomeruli, or to secrete the constant fraction of the amount filtered as Shannon, Jolliffe and Smith believe (5), there might be a reduction in creatinine clearance without any decrease in the amount of glomerular filtrate. In such circumstance, it seems difficult to relate the decrease directly to reduction in functioning mass of renal tissue.

In the hope of furthering a physiological interpretation of the creatinine and urea clearance tests, we have estimated the number of glomeruli in one kidney of a number of patients whose clearances had been measured from one day to several months before death. All of the patients had systolic blood pressures above 100 mm. Hg and were without evidence of congestive heart failure at the time the clearance tests were made. When there was any doubt of the ability to empty the bladder, the patient was catheterized at the beginning and end of the period of urine collection. The tests were made in the manner described in the preceding paper (6)

If there was any gross difference in the pathological condition of the two kidneys, the experiment was discarded. The number of glomeruli was estimated by Kunkel's (7) modification of Vimtrup's method. The kidney was perfused at 140 mm. Hg pressure with a mixture of equal parts of 25 per cent potassium ferrocyanide and ferric ammonium citrate, after washing out the blood with 09 per cent NaCl. It was then cut in pieces, digested in 50 per cent HCl for 10 to 36 hours, v ashed in tap v ater, and allowed to stand in distilled water for 24 to 48 hours. When sufficiently digested, it was diluted to a suitable volume and thoroughly mixed. The number of glomeruli in 2 cc aliquots v as then counted on a ruled v atch glass under a binocular microscope. In the majority of instances, the completeness of injection has been checked by histological sections, and the estimated number of glomeruli corrected for the proportion of apparently patent but uninjected glomeruli.

The use of such an estimate of the number of glomeruli involves several assumptions. It is assumed that the proportion of uninjected glomeruli is nearly the same throughout the kidney. Counts of injected and uninjected glomeruli in blocks taken from different parts of the kidney show

little difference in the proportion of uninjected glomeruli. Any kidney in which a visible infarct was produced was discarded, or cut out and weighed and allowance made for it. It is assumed that the glomeruli are uniformly distributed throughout the suspension. Thorough mixing before sampling is essential. The variation in the counts of different aliquots is chiefly due to insufficient mixing. From 3 to 20 aliquots were counted the standard deviation calculated and the estimate shown to be significant according to Fisher's (8) method of calculation. It is further assumed that the numbers of glomeruli in the two kidneys of the same individual are equal within about 10 per cent. This was shown for the rabbit by Hayman and Starr (9), for the human by Moore (10)

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Relation of creatin ne and usea clearance tests and the ni mber of glomeruls in one k dray

| | 1 | | | ;===================================== | | | |
|--------------------|--------------------|-------------|-------------|--|-------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Case num ber | Hosp tal number | Sex | Age | D agnosts | Creatinine cleurance | t rev clear ance | Clamen II in one ki len |
| | | | 3 tars | | ec per | c 517 | |
| 1 | 143-651 | F | 34 | Nilson tuborollara | minule | minule | |
| 2 | 149-586 | | 23 | Miliary tuberculosis | 145 | 40 6 | 1,260,000 |
| 3 | 145~915 | | | Miliary tuberculosis | 201 | 11120 | 1,230 000 |
| | 1 | | 15 | Tuberculous meningitis | 129 | 66 7* | 1,061,000 |
| 4 | 136-525 | | 28 | Dirbetes insipidus | 104 | 390 | 1,288,000 |
| 5 | 147-691 | | 36 | Miliary tuberculosis | 108 | 36.0* | \$00,000 |
| 6 | 146–212 | N | 33 | Tuberculous meningitis | 94 | 510 | 896,000 |
| 7 | 145-644 | | 27 | Pneumonia | 231 | 760 | 1,250,000 |
| 8 | 142-828 | M | 36 | Pneumonia | 151 | 62 0* | 1,037,000 |
| 9 | 142-587 | M | 26 | Pneumonia | 145 | 26 0* | 1,336,000 |
| 10 | 150-738 | M | 51 | Pneumonia | 38 | 83* | 1,530 000 |
| 11 | 143-756 | | 36 | Pneumonia | 23 | 95 | 1,250,000 |
| 12 | 146-484 | M | 75 | Carcinoma of prostate and ar- | 81 | 28 7* | 1,056,000 |
| | | | | teriosclerotic Bright's disease | 01 | 20 / | 1,050,000 |
| 13 | 149-816 | F | 67 | Carcinoma of stomach and ar- | 44 | 11 8* | 402,000 |
| 1.4 | 144-079 | F | 38 | teriosclerotic Bright's disease | 3- | | 100.000 |
| 14 | | | | Arteriosclerotic Bright's disease | 35 | 11 2* | 490,000 |
| | 145-997 | | 29 | Arteriosclerotic Bright's disease | 47 | 27 0* | 390 000 |
| 16 | 142-324 | 1 1 | 55 | Arteriosclerotic Bright's disease | 32 | 29 0* | 174,000 |
| 17 | 149-143 | " | 54 | Arteriosclerotic Bright's disease | 30 | | 341,000 |
| 18 | 143-018 | r | 25 | Arteriosclerotic Bright's disease | 27 | 12 3* | 413,000 |
| 19 | 149-634 | | 44 | Arteriosclerotic Bright's disease | 18 | 130 | 422,000 |
| 20 | 149-237 | M | 58 | Arteriosclerotic Bright's disease | 15 | 50 | 240,000 |
| 21 | 134-806 | F | 32 | Arteriosclerotic Bright's disease | 7 | 40 | 359,000 |
| 22 | 91-504 | | 43 | Arteriosclerotic Bright's disease | 3 | 3 6* | 275,000 |
| 23 | 146-741 | M | 56 | Arteriosclerotic Bright's disease | 3 | 0.3* | 169 000 |
| | 147-168 | F | 40 | Arteriosclerotic Bright's disease | 2 | 17* | 192,000 |
| 25 | 145-306 | F | 43 | Arteriosclerotic Bright's disease | 1 | | 156,000 |
| 26 | 141-832 | M | 47 | Arteriosclerotic Bright's disease | 06 (| 0 2* | 195,000 |
| 27 | 149~512 | M | 21 | Focal hemorrhagic Bright's dis- | 126 | 39 0* | 1,143,000 |
| 28 | 141-891 | F | 19 | Acute hemorrhagic Bright's dis | 3 | 2 5* | 819,000 |
| 29 | 142-730 | M | 36 | Active hemorrhagic Bright's disease | 29 | 13 8* | 746,000 |
| 30 | 151-50S | F | 27 | Active hemorrhagic Bright's disease | 12 | 5 5* | 170,000 |
| 31 | 144-740 | M | 50 | Pyelonephritis with multiple abscesses and arteriosclerotic | 2 | 1 4* | 393,000 |
| 32 | 144-053 | 11 | 71 | Bright's disease Hypertrophied prostate and pyelonephritis with multiple | 5 | 3 5 | 490,000 |
| 33 | 147-594 | F | 34 | abscesses Pyelonephritis and B coli sep- | 9 | 69. | 1,330 000 |
| 34 | 149-077 | F | 52 | Carcinoma of pancreas and bile nephrosis | 3 | | 645,000 |
| | | | | | | '- | |

^{*} Standard clearance

about the same degree (12) and since not only is the final clinical picture often very similar but even the pathological distinction at times difficult, it seems that in both groups the reduction in clearances is probably due to reduction in number of glomeruli

In patients with acute nephritis who show decreased clearance values with return toward normal during convalescence it seems reasonable to suppose that certain glomeruli have been rendered temporarily functionless by inflammation, but that the process has not gone on to destruction so that recovery can take place. The one patient in the series with acute elemorrhagic nephritis had a very low clearance, but a normal number of glomeruli. The injection method of estimating glomeruli does not, of cours, distinguish between normal and abnormal glomeruli since any whose capillaries are sufficiently patient to be injected at the pressure used must be counted. Sections of the other kidney from this patient showed degenerative or inflammatory changes in nearly every glomerulus.

Mo'ler. McIntosh and Van Slyke attribute decrease in the volume of blood cleared of urea per minute in pathological conditions to one of two causes either a decrease in the volume of blood passing through the kidneys, or a decrease in the proportion of its urea removed during the passage In cardiac decompensation, glomerular nephritis and arteriolar sclerosis diminished flow seems certain. Whether a decrease in the proportion of urea removed from the blood also occurs they felt there was at present no basis to surmise Holten and Rehberg on the other hand believe from comparison of creatinine and urea excretion rates that the proportion of urea removed is quite variable, the variation being due to back diffusion of different amounts of urea from concentrated solution in the lumen of the tubule They believe that a certain amount of back diffusion takes place normally, and that this may be increased by tubular damage The small group in Table I associated with general or urogenital infection lends support to this conception, but would extend it to include back diffusion of creatinine as well at least in pathological conditions This group showed low clearances and yet a normal number of glomeruli which in histological section did not appear significantly abnormal

While it is of course possible that the volume of glomerular filtrate may have been reduced in these cases it seems more probable that the cause of the low clearance values lies in toxic damage to tubule cells so that they are no longer able to resist back diffusion of urea or creatinine from the lumen of the tubule into the peritubular capillaries. This is illustrated in the group of patients with pneumonia. Cases 7 and 8 had normal concentrations of blood urea introgen and creatinine and normal clearances. Case 9 had a normal blood creatinine and creatinine clearance, but an elevated blood urea introgen and a reduced urea clearance. This we would interpret as indicating sufficient clamage to tubules to permit an increase in the normal back diffusion of urea, but insufficient to allow

appreciable back diffusion of the normally more concentrated creatinine Cases 10 and 11 had increase of both urea nitrogen and creatinine, and a reduction in both clearances, but a normal number of glomeruli and adequate blood pressure. Here it seems probable that tubule cells were sufficiently damaged to permit back diffusion of both urea and creatinine. We have no explanation to offer for the presence of this type of damage in some pneumonia patients and not in others.

If this interpretation be correct its bearing on the significance of clearance tests is obvious. They may be used as a measure of the "amount" of functioning renal tissue only in the absence of sepsis or toxic damage to tubules. When these are present, clearance tests indicate the manner in which the kidney eliminates the test substance, but how much of a reduced clearance is due to reduction in amount of functioning renal mass and how much to abnormal behavior of that mass it is impossible to say

Additional evidence that variation in the proportion of urea removed from the blood occurs is indicated by the effect of drugs (Table II) After

| Name | Drug | Urine volume | Creatine clearance | | Ures cl | Urea clearance | | |
|------|------------------|------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------|------------------|-------------------------------|--|--|
| | | cc per minule | ec per minute | Per cent average normal | cc per minule | Per cent avereze normal | | |
| В | Control—1st hour | 4 26 | 169 | 114 | 75 0 | 100 | | |
| | Control—2nd hour | 4 23 | 164 | 111 | 77 0 | 103 | | |
| Н | Before pituitrin | 11 33 | 138 | 93 | 90 0 | 120 | | |
| | After pituitrin | 66 | 113 | 76 | 26 85* | 50 | | |
| С | Before pituitrin | 8 75 | 86 | 58 | 49 5 | 66 | | |
| | After pituitrin | 3 17 | 71 | 48 | 24 9 | 33 | | |
| s | Before adrenalın | 7 70 | 196 | 132 | 75 0 | 100 | | |
| | After adrenalın | 3 75 | 139 | 94 | 57 5 | 77 | | |
| В | Before morphine | 4 80 | 181 | 122 | 87 0 | 116 | | |
| | After morphine | 2 75 | 143 | 97 | 82 7 | 110 | | |
| L | Before caffeine | 1 91 | 126 | 85 | 32 7* | 61 | | |
| | After caffeine | 5 68 | 158 | 107 | 73 5 | 95 | | |

TABLE II

Effect of drugs on creaturing and usea clearance tests

the administration of pituitrin, the excretion of urch is diminished relatively more than that of creatinine, while after adrenalin and morphine it is decreased less. After casseine, there is a greater increase in urch clearance than in creatinine clearance. These experiments were all done in the

^{*} Standard clearance

morning when MacKay (13) has shown that variations in clearances are least. Fluid intake was constant the drugs given hypodermically five minutes before the end of the control hour. While there is nothing in the simple comparison of the two tests to indicate that it is the proportion of urea removed from the blood that varies, rather than creatinine, the relatively constant rate of creatinine excretion independent of urine volume, and the variation in the rate of urea excretion with urine volume make it seem more probable that there is greater variation in the proportion of urea removed than of creatinine. If the creatinine clearance represents the volume of glomerular filtrate, it must indicate that variations in the volume of filtrate are of less importance in determining the final volume of urine than are differences in the volume of fluid reabsorbed by the tubules

SUMMARY

The results of creatinine and urea clearance tests of kidney function have been compared with estimates of the number of glomeruli in one kidney after postmortem injection. In arteriosclerotic Bright's disease and probably in chronic homorrhagic Bright's disease reduction in clear ance tests is associated with decrease in the number of injected glomeruli. In pneumonia and pyelonephritis, the clearances may be greatly reduced in the presence of a normal number of glomeruli. It is suggested that this may be due to back diffusion of the test substance through damaged tubule cells.

We are indebted to Dr. Allan R. Moritz for the histological examination of the kidneys and for the differential counts of injected and uninjected glomeruli

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SERUM TREATMENT OF HEMOLYTIC STREPTOCOCCUS PNEUMONIA

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(Received for publication May 9 1933)

During the several outbreal's of respiratory disease occurring during the colder months of the year the chance simultaneous occurrence of strep tococcus tonsillitis not infrequently results in hemolytic streptococcus lobu har pneumonia. Many of the cases of pneumonia seem to be secondary in the sense that the symptoms of an acute infectious disease such as influenza measles sinusitis etc. are present for a few days before the onset of pneumonia, whereas in a smaller number, there occurs a sudden onset of lobular pneumonia usually with pleurisy without any evidence of a preceding infection. The seriousness of both types of hemolytic streptococcus pneumonia with the high mortality and frequent occurrence of empyema is well known. The accepted method of treatment is supportive and symptomatic with surgical intervention whenever empyema The only hope of successful treatment lies in the use of specific Since certain other streptococcal infections such as scarlet fever and erysipelas have apparently improved under the administration of specific antiserum it is logical to apply these methods to the streptococcal pneumonias At least one difficulty comes to mind immediately viz problem of preparing a serum of sufficient polyvalency to be generally ap-The pathogenic hemolytic streptococci vary greatly in their autigenic values Even the strains isolated from cases of erysipelas and cel lulitis show considerable differences not only immunologically but in their termentative reactions 1. However, these strains by their breadth of immunological reaction are apparently interrelated and it has been found possible by means of the Lancefield precipitation test to select nine strains for the production of a polyvalent serum sufficiently broad to cover all the strains thus far recovered from cases of eryspelas and cellulitis assumption of coverage is based on the Lancefield (1) M factor precipitin reaction in monovalent rabbit sera prepared against each of the nine strains on the neutralization of the toxillergin, on protection tests in mice ind on clinical response in human cases

¹ Unpublished experiments of Eleanor A. Bliss.
It has not been found possible to obtain the precipitin reaction with serum from immunized horses

fair number of white cells as well as albumin although the latter fell to a faint trace before discharge

She was discharged March 19 1930, six weeks after admission

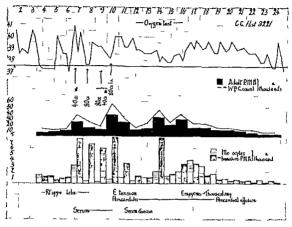


CHART I CASE II

Case II C C male aged twenty two years was well until Tebruary 2 1931 when he had a sudden attack of high fever headache weakness musea and vomiting and was admitted to the infirmary. Recovery was uneventful and he was discharged on February 7th. He was extremely weak and had severe night sweats but returned to school and work on February 12th One week later he was readmitted to the infirmary with German measles and remained four days He did not return to work until February 24th On the evening of February 28th there was a sudden onset of high fever accompanied by aching and he was readmitted to the infirmary on March 1st. For three days the temperature varied from 37 to 405° C with two chills each day March 5th he was admitted to the hospital with signs of lobular pneumonia in the right upper lobe. The sputum culture showed innumerable colonies of B hemolytic streptococci The temperature fluctuated between 37 and 41° C On the sixth day after onset the patient had two chills seemed much worse and complained of severe pain in the right side of his chest. In the afternoon 40 ce of concentrated ensupelas serum were injected intramuscularly and in the afternoon of the seventh day 80 cc of the unconcentrated serum were given intravenously. These doses were repeated on the eighth day and the intravenous injection repeated again on the tenth day when there were signs of extension to the right lower lobe. During the four days of serum treatment, the immature polymorphonuclears increased but decreased on the eleventh day. The fever became continuous instead of remittent. On the twelfth day there were signs of pericarditis and on account of the extreme cyanosis the patient was placed in the oxygen tent for four days. Fluid was detected in the right pleural cavity

The first opportunity to apply this serum in the treatment of strep tococcus pneumonia came before any immunological tests were carried out. But such tests coincidently with treatment were carried out showing that the polyvalent serum possesses antibodies for the particular strain involved.

The purpose of this report is to record the details of the treatment of eight successive cases 4 of β -hemolytic streptococcus pheumonia all of whom recovered

Case I | I | D), female aged twenty one years was admitted February 14 1930 complaining of chills tever and swollen cervical lymph nodes of nine divs' duration. Past history. Frequent tonsillates before tonsillectomy twelve years ago, and a rather severe sinusitis one and a half years ago.

The illness for which she was admitted begin simply enough as a sore throat and head cold with rather marked swelling of the lymph nodes and later tever

For a week the temperature was normal every morning, reaching 30.5° and 40° C at night with profuse sweats and later with pain over the right side of the face. On admission she appeared moderately ill and showed little except the red pharyny the tenderness over the right maxillary frontal sinus and general moderate lymph node enlargement. Her temperature was 39.7° C, pulse 138, blood pressure 130 systolic and 80 diastolic, her leukocytes were 17.600 with 54 per cent polymorphonucleurs. The urine showed red and white cells and 2 + albumin

At this time she was found to have an acute right mixillary sinusitis and a mild acute nephritis. Despite puncture of the intrum four days later her temperature continued to fluctuate widely from 36.5° to 40.5° C in the course of six hours. The urine contained red cells and albumin and the nonprotein introgen rose to 48 mgm per cent. B-hemolytic streptococci were grown from the antrum washings. On the twenty-second day after onset she developed signs of pneumonia of the right upper lobe. Cultures and mouse moculation of the washed sputum showed predominance of β -hemolytic streptococci which by the Lancefield method yielded a specific soluble substance precipitated by mono valent antiery sipel is serum. She was given two intravenous injections of intiery sipelas serum first 25 cc, and then 50 cc. Following this the temperature tell to normal and the exerction of urine rose from 560 cc. per day (average for seven days) to 2340 cc. the following day and continued it in average of 1460 cc. per day.

Her course was then uneventral except for two moderate attacks of serum sickness. She began to gain in weight and strength. Her red count and he no globin began to return to normal. Her sinuses cleared and showed no further streptococci on culture, although her pharvax continued to harbor a decreasing number of these organisms. On the day of discharge a culture value of these

The only abnormality was in the urine. The ladney function tests vere normal but there were continuously present great numbers or red cells and a

^{*}Polyvalent anti-treptococcus hemolyticus serum (unconcentrated) and it concentrated product (erysipelas antitoxin) prepared by H. K. Mulford Conpains using nine selected strains. In two cases streptococcus antitoxin prepared by the New York State Laboratory, as used in addition

^{*} Abstract of the first five cases treated as presented before the As october as American Physicians 11 1031 by Amoss H. I., Persons F. I., and H. 2011. Press O. C.

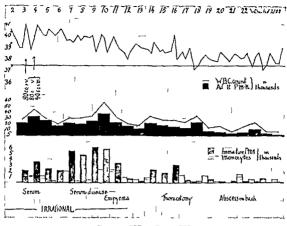


CHART III CASE IV

Case IV W W male aged fifteen years about January 15 1931 ex perienced a soreness in his throat and the following day was admitted to the infirmary where he was placed in the same room with several patients ill with influenza About January 30th he had a chill and became very ill Signs of pneumonia over the entire right side of the chest appeared on February 1st and he was transferred to the Medical Service By February 2 1931 the sputum contained pus and many β hemolytic streptococci. The x-ray showed diffuse peribronchial reaction throughout the right lobes thickened pleura and a shadow obscuring the outer portion of the diaphragm. The patient was irrational the temperature varied from 39 to 41 C and the blood pressure was 80 systolic and 40 diastolic Eighty cubic centimeters of erisipelas antistreptococcus serum were given intravenously and the treatment repeated the following day with 40 cc of the concentrated serum intramuscularly. The temperature which had fluctuated markedly began to be continuously high and gradually to recede Serum disease appeared on the seventh day and the immature polymorpho nuclears increased. One hundred cc of fluid were withdrawn from the right pleural cavity on the tenth day but tidal irrigation was not begun until the fif teenth day Cultures of fluid showed heavy growth of B hemolytic streptococci. The Schilling count shifted to the right, and there was a gradual and complete recovery. The patient was discharged well on April 4 1931

Cases treated by intrapliural injection of serum

In three of the four cases already described empyema developed requiring long drawinge. In the two cases to be described the serum was injected into the pleural cavity with a twofold purpose (a) as a mechanical method of affording relief from severe pleurisy and (b) to prevent if possible empyema. In these cases the intravenous and intramuscular in jections were also given

on the eighteenth day. One liter of pus was evacuated and tidal drains e_{TT} is toted. Culture of the emprema fluid showed he are intection with β he notice streptococci. On the inneteenth day the patient expector ited about 200 e_{T} of sputum, and the signs of pericardal effusion disappeared within two day. On the twenty-fourth day the roentzen ray showed signs of early in β in the right upper lobe, and there was continuous expector ition of pus which continued many spirochetes and β -hemolytic streptococci. After postural draining in the intravenous injection of neoresphenium the lung abscess gradually healed and the patient gradually improved. He was discharged well on September 30, 1931.

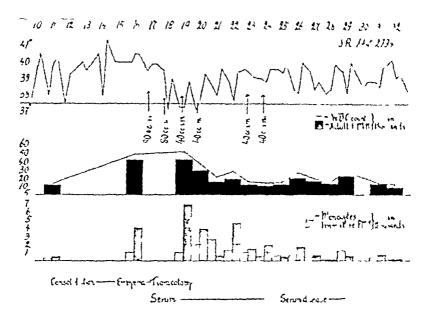
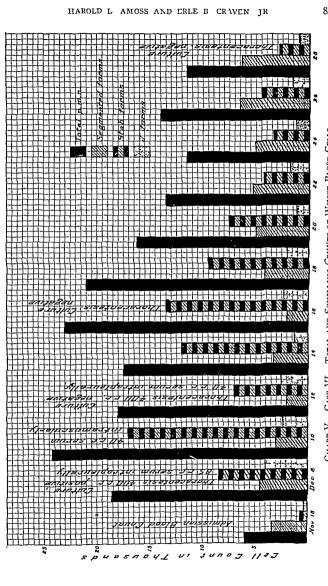


CHART II CASI III

Case III | I R male aged sixteen years was admitted January 27 1931 from the infirmary on the tenth day of a very severe larvingitis with a high tever and unproductive cough. On the eleventh day there were signs or con solidation in the left lover lobe. On the fitteenth div there were signs or fluid at the left have and cultures of the sputum taken on this date showed immuner dik B-hemolytic streptococci. On the sixteenth day there was a rise in the imma ture polymorphonuclear cells in the blood and fluid containing large numbers or pus cells (culture positive for β hemolytic streptococci) was removed from the pleural cavity. On the seventeenth day the patient become much vior i On this day 80 cc of eryspelis inti-streptococcus serum, ere given intra venously and the dose repeated the following dist and tidal drain go of the pleur I cavas was begun. On the succeeding six days there were given in r in receions or 40 cc, each or the concentrated serum intransiscularly ber of manufact polynorphomoleur cells began to recease on the teenar had rel the patient began to improve. Convilescence was slot, by the patient variation discharged viell on May 15, 1931



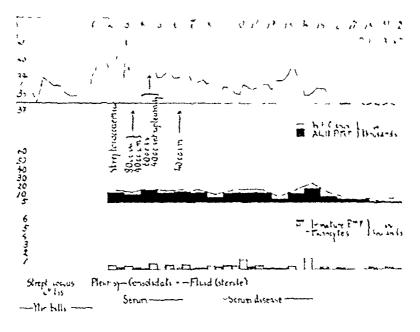


CHART IV CASE V

As evidence that the effect of the serum is a result of specific action rather than a non specific provocation of reticuloendothelial cells (2) two cases are described below in which the pleural fluid contained in addition to the β hemolytic streptococcus a strum of pneumococcus Group IV After adequate doses of the serum streptococci were no longer present but the pneumococci endured

Case VII A six year old colored female was admitted to the Pediatric Ward 5 on January 11 1933 on the seventh day of lobular pneumonia and with signs of fluid in the left pleural cavity. The temperature was 405° C and white blood cells 20 500 per cubic millimeter. Sputum yielded pure culture of B hemolytic streptococci and the blood culture showed less than one colony per or of the same strain. Thoracentesis immediately after admission yielded a small quantity of sanguineous fluid which on culture, had a heavy growth of B hemolytic streptococci The patient grew progressively worse On Janu ary 15th and 16th 15 and 40 cc of fluid respectively were withdrawn and cultures were heavily positive. On January 17th following aspiration of 30 cc of fluid 10 cc of erysipelas antitoxin were instilled into the pleural cavity There was no reaction On January 20 1933 40 cc of erysipelas antitoxin were injected intrapleurally following aspiration of 280 cc of pleural exudite Culture of this aspirated fluid again yielded B hemolytic streptococci Cultures of fluid removed on January 25th and 27th were negative for hemolytic streptococci but give a heavy growth of pneumococcus Group IV Before serum was given the temperature reached duly peaks of 39° to 40 6° C and the white blood count 25 000 Following the serum injections the white blood count dropped rapidly to 12 000 and the peaks of fever to 38 5° to 37 2° C After thoracenteses on January 25th and January 27th (yielding Group IV pneumococci) the temperature again rose to 40 6° C

Thoracotomy for the purpose of tidal irrigation was performed on January 30 1933. Pus obtained at operation gave a pure culture of pneumococcus Group IV.

Sputum culture now gave a mixed growth of pneumococcus Group IV strphylococcus aureus and β hemolytic streptococci. Blood cultures remained sterile

Four days after operation the temperature fell to 37 6° C and remained nor mal until March 13th when the drainage tube was removed. There was an immediate rise in temperature to 39 3° C and the child became quite ill again Drainage was re instituted and the temperature came to normal after six days At discharge March 24° 1933 the thoracotomy wound had healed and the child was discharged in excellent condition.

Case VIII Colored male aged four years brother of patient described under Case VII admitted on January 11–1933 on the fifth day of lobular pneumonia of left lung with pleurisk thickened pleura and early empyema. Temperature 40.2 C white blood cells 11600 sputum yielded a heavy growth of β hemolytic streptococci and the blood culture showed less than one colory per cc of the same organism. Thoracentesis on the day of admission yielded a small quantity of sanguineous fluid which on culture had a heavy growth of β hemolytic streptococci

⁵ We are greatly indebted to Dr W C Davison Professor of Pediatrics for permission to report Cases VII and VIII and to Dr Jean D Craven Resident in Pediatrics for the chinical observations on them

haze. The temperature became normal on Lebra its 15th at the natural information in interest in the patient was discharged well on March 14th.

Case II White male iged forty-eight veirs admitted on Lebruary 1 1952 with the diagnoses of permicious anemia and subacute combined schrosis of spinal cord. He was treated with liver and liver extract, and was discharged improved on February 14th.

He continued to take liver extract irregularly and was readmitted on November 18, 1932, with more advanced spiral cord changes and a neurolo real bladder. There had been only a moderate diminution in the crythrocyte countried hemoglobin.

On the eleventh day after admission his temperature rose to 39° () and the leukocyte count to 14500. Examination disclosed nothing to account for the The irregular tever rising to 38.5° to 39.5° ("duly continued and on December 7th the patient complained of severe pain in the right flank and along the lower right anterior cost il margin. Respirations were shallow and there was diminished excursion on the right. Tactile tremitus was moderately in creased from the angle of the scapula to the right base. The percussion note was slightly impaired and a loud rough friction rub obscured the breath On the following morning the breath sounds were tubular and the sounds friction rub was still present. The patient was acutely ill and was very un Culture of the sputum showed heavy growth of β hemolytic streptococci. With the appearance of the fluid at the right base the midble rub disappeared but the severe pain endured. The blood culture, taken on December 8th showed one colony of B-hemolytic streptococci per cubic centimeter. On December 9th from the right pleur il cavity, 400 cc. of thin bloods fluid were withdrawn which on culture yielded a heavy growth of B hemolytic Following thoracentesis 85 cc. of concentrated existing strepto coccus antitoxin diluted with 85 cc of physiological value were injected directly into the pleural cavity without immediate reaction. There was no increase in the pain

On December 10th 40 cc of the intitoxin were given intransiscularly. On December 11th 500 cc of pleural fluid were again withdrawn and 40 cc of concentrated streptococcus intitoxin injected. The fluid withdrawn are no lenger bloody and cultures remained sterile. The leukocyte count of 37 000 on the day before injection of serum fell to 24 000 on the following day and to 17 000 on the third day (see Chart V). The fever which during the height of the disease ranged between 38.5 and 40° C. nov fluctuated between 38 and 38.8° C. The patient looked and relt much improved although signs of considerable pleural effusion remained. The irregular fever continued. Thoracen teses on December 17th and 20th and January 13, 1933, yielded quantities of fluid from 40 to 500 cc. All were cultured and remained sterile. The temperature gradually field to normal during the five weeks following serum injection. The patient was discharged on Linuary 26, 1933, having been affebrile for the weeks but with evidence of a small amount of encapsulated fluid along the right lateral chases will.

Specific action of the series

In Case V it is possible that the intropleural instillation of serum prevented infection of the pleural fluid by s reptococci and in Case VI th serum apparently assisted within force-eight hours in the removal of the ground alread established

As evidence that the effect of the scrum is a result of specific action rather than a non specific provocation of reticuloendothelad cells (2) two cases are described below in which the pleural fluid contained in addition to the β -hemolytic streptococcus a strain of pneumococcus Group IV After adequate doses of the serum streptococci were no longer present but the pneumococci endured

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Group IV

Sputum culture now give a mixed growth of pneumococcus Group IV, staphylococcus aureus and β hemolytic treptecocci. Blood cultures remained sterile

Four days after operation the temperature tell to 37.6° C and remained normal until March 13th when the draining tube was removed. There was an immediate rise in temperature to 39.3° C and the child became quite ill again Draininge was re-instituted and the temperature came to normal after six days At discharge March 24, 1953, the thoracotomy wound had healed and the child was discharged in excellent condition.

Case VIII Colored male aged four years brother of patient described in der Case VII admitted on Innuary 11 1933 on the fifth div of lobular pneu

Skin neutralization tests 6

The streptallergin from four strains (Cases II to V) gave a positive skin reaction in goats. The addition of 0.1 cc. of serium from a gort immunized with the New York 5 scarlet strain of β hemolytic streptococcus prevented any reaction in the presence of 10 skin test doses of the streptallergins

Protection tests 7

The virulence of four of the strains was increased by mouse passage until the minimum lethal dose became 0.5 cc. of 10.7 dilution

The protection tests were made by injecting intraperitoneally 0.2 cc of the anti-serum diluted to 0.5 cc with isotonic salt solution and simultaneously but separately 0.5 cc of the dilution of the cighteen hour broth culture of the organism. Three mice were used for each dilution and a virulence control and normal horse serum control were injected in each series.

The results of the protection tests were as follows

Case I Not tested

Case II Virulence 10 $^{\rm o}$ Mulford's concentrated protected against $10^{\rm -r}$ unconcentrated result inconsistent, New York State no protection

Case III Virulence 10-6, Mulford's concentrated protected aguinst 10-5 unconcentrated result inconsistent New York State no protection

Case IV Virulence 10^{-6} Mulford's concentrated protected 2 out of 3 against 10^{-4} , unconcentrated protected against 10^{-} , New York State no protection

Case V Control 2 out of 3 mice died after injection of 10 dilution plus normal horse serum. Mulford's concentrated streptococcus antitovin protected all mice against 10 ³. New York State antistreptococcus serum protected 2 mice out of 3 against 10-

Cases VI, VII and VIII strains are ulent for mice

Protection tests with convalescent serum from the patients have not yet been made

DISCUSSION

The patients treated with serum were critically ill. With the high fever cherry cyanosis hypotension distension and evidences of a rapidly spreading lesion, the prognosis was very grave. In Case I the administration of the serum was followed by a marked increase of urinary secretion and quick disappearance of fever with a definite improvement in the

O These tests were made by Miss Ruth Wheeler of the New York State Laboratory of Hygiene to whom we are greatly indebted for her cooperation Method of Mr. C. Roos. Glenolden. Pa.

mouse protection tests suggest a rational immunologic basis for specific serum treatment

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CYSTINE CONTENT OF FINGER NAILS IN PELLAGRA 1

By SHELDON A PAYNE AND WILLIAM A PERLZWEIG

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(Received for publication May 29 1933)

An abnormality in sulfur metabolism in pellagra was first demonstrated by Camurri (1) and Myers and Fine (2) Indicanuria (3, 4), a decreased excretion of thiocyanate (5), and an increase in the excretion of absolute amounts of ethereal sulphates in the urine (2) of pellagrins have been observed. A reduction of sulfur in brain and spinal cord of five individuals succumbing with pellagra was reported by Koch and Voegtlin (6). The total amount and per cent cystine of rat hair decreases when these animals are fed diets deficient in vitamin G (7, 8)

It has been suggested (9) that the relatively high concentration of cystine in wool and hair is of physiologic importance in the protection of the organism against harmful effects of prolonged exposure to sunlight protecting effect of cystine solutions to paramecia exposed to ultraviolet rays was demonstrated by Harris and Hoyt (10) and experiments of Ward (11) seem to indicate that although several amino acids give marked general absorption bands, cystine is the only amino acid that has any marked absorption in the ultraviolet region of solar light. The high concentration of cystine in epidermal tissues of higher forms of animal life (12 13) a content greater than that of any other tissue, suggests a possible specific protective function in this tissue. In the hope that we might find more experimental evidence for the clinical observation (14-15) that skin lesions in pellagra indicate a light sensitive condition 40 cases of pellagra and 61 subjects without evidence of pellagra have been studied Because of the technical difficulties in obtaining representative samples of skin we concluded that finger nails gave more uniform data from which to judge cystine content in epithelial tissue

METHODS

In reviewing the available data concerning the sulfur and cystine content of the common keratins one is impressed with the wide variation of the results in the hands of different observers. Much of the data is open to criticism in that no mention is made concerning the method of preliminary treatment, and variations in this may account for many of the discrepancies. Our preliminary work showed that if nails are thoroughly cleaned and the technique of drying stand ardized there is little variation in cystine in nails from various fingers of the same individual. However, in spite of an attempt to subject each sample of

89

44

¹ This investigation was aided in part by a grant from the Pellagra Fund donated by the Lederle Laboratories Inc

of 97 to 117 per cent Sullivan and Hess (23), in 1932, reported cystine content of the finger nails of normal individuals to vary from 11 to 13 per cent. Since the early methods involved the isolation of cystine from a hydrolysate and determination of precipitated sulfate, one would expect higher values in a colorimetric method such as Sullivan's

In our analyses of finger nails from 36 healthy young adults, chiefly medical students and laboratory workers, Figure 1, A and Table I, cystine

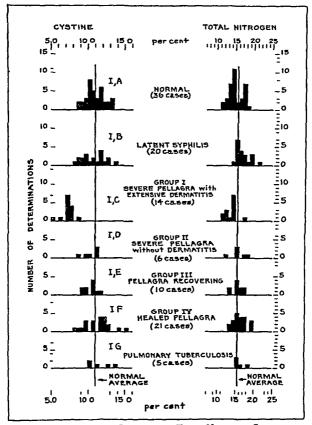


Fig 1 Histograms for Cystine and Total Nitrogen Content of the Finger Nails in Normal Subjects and in Patients with Pellagra Syphilis and Tuberculosis

Each square represents a single determination

nail parings to standard conditions of cleaning and drying it was realized that some variation in the rate of loss of water from different samples was made? able. Therefore the total nitrogen content (representing protein) and the NS ratio viere determined in a further effort to minimize the errors inherent in a series of determinations based on the dry weight of biological material

Finger nail parings were souled in water for 24 hours, cuticle and dirt re moved by scraping and after washing in running water dried in an oven for 24 hours at 90° C Cystine was determined by a modification of the Sullivan method (16) From 30 to 60 mgm clean dry finger nail parings and 5 cc of 20 per cent hydrochloric acid were placed in a 50 cc acctilation flash with a ground glass fitted reflux condenser. The flask was placed in a cold mineral oil bath and the bath brought to 120° C at which heating was continued for 12 The hydrolysate was transferred to a 25 cc volumetric flash and the acetylation flack rinsed with 5 cc of 0.1 N hydrochloric acid. The hydrolysate was treated drop-wise with 20 per cent sodium hydroxide until greenish to bromphenol blue, 1e, about pH 35 Dilution was made to 25 cc with addition of 0.1 N hydrochloric acid. Colorimetric estimation of cystine proceeded according to Sullivan's method. Color matching is facilitated by the use of a vellow light filter glass disc devised for the Polin and Malmros (17) micro method for blood sugar determination?

Total nitrogen of finger nails was determined by the Koch-McMcelin method (18) on the above hydrolysate

Because of the slow and variable growth of the finger nail only cases with chronic disease have been considered and only stable conditions of at least two months duration have been included in the data. Thirty-three of the pellagrins were negro patients at the State Hospital at Goldsboro, North Carolina, and were carefully followed for months. Several had experienced "recurrent" pellagra for years and had been observed at the institution over long periods of time. All gave histories of faulty dictaries for months, and three mental cases were observed to develop symptoms during self-inflicted periods of starvation. Treatment in all cases was chiefly dictary and followed the suggestions of Goldberger et al. (19, 20). High vitamin foods, especially mill and fresh ments, fruits, and vegetables, were given in abundance. Since many of the pellagrins were known to have syphilis on the basis of history of infection or positive blood Wassermann tests, data are presented from a control group of 20 cases with latent syphilis. Also since emacration is common among pellagrins five malnourished cases of pulmonary tuberculosis are included.

Cystine content of normal finger nails

Only a few values for the cystine or sulfur content of normal human finger nuls are available. The early work of Mulder (21), in 1847, showed human nail to contain 28 per cent sulfur corresponding to 105 per cent cystine. Buchtala (13), in 1907, pooled the finger nuls from 16 cadavers and by a method which determined sulfur by sublimation, estimated cystine content to be 5.15 per cent. Langecker (22), in 1921 reported values for sulfur in finger nuls from six patients with various diseases. His values range from 2.59 to 3.12 per cent corresponding to estimated cystine values.

² Manufactured b the Klett Manufacturing Company, New York Cit,

The authors are indebted to the Superintendent W Linville, ID and his saff for the opportunity to study and to obtain samples of finger null trem trese palents

TABLE II

Cysline, total nitrogen and N S ratio in finger nails of individual negro cases of severe pellagra will extensive dermatitis before and after recovery

| | | | | | · | | |
|--------------------|-----|-------------|----------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|--|--|
| Case num ber | Sex | Age | Cystine | Total nitrogen | N S ratio* | Clinical notes | |
| 101 | F | years 50 | per cent 704 | per cent 160 | 8 51 | Extensive dermatitis Died 2 weeks later | |
| 107 | F | 60 | 7 46 | 15 8 | 7 94 | Severe dermatitis Later | |
| 108 | F | 63 | 8 55 | 15 4 | 676 | Severe dermatitis Died 4 | |
| 109 | F | 53 | 7 52 11 80 | 12 6 15 7 | 6 27 | Extensive dermatitis 4 months after recovery | |
| 111 | F | 32 | 7 69 | 138 | 674 | Severe dermatitis Later re | |
| 112 | F | 30 | 7 50 | 13 8 | 690 | covered Extensive dermatitis | |
| 113 | F | 29 | 7 32 | 17 9 | 6 71 | 6 months after recovery Severe dermatitis | |
| 114 | F | 46 | 7 27 8 22 | 163 126 | 6 50 | 3 months after recovery Severe dermatitis | |
| 115 | Г | 45 | 8 00 10 83 | 13 7 | 7 20 | 5 months after recovery Extensive dermatitis Died 9 | |
| 118 | М | 17 | 7 09 | 15 0 | 7 98 | weeks later Severe dermatitis | |
| 119 | M | 70 | 10 72 14 49 | 14 3 19 2 | 5 00 4 95 | 6 months after recovery 3 months before onset of symp | |
| 120 | М | 32 | 7 85 5 03 9 53 | 14 5 15 1 17 8 | 6 90 11 28 7 01 | toms Severe dermatitis Most severe dermatitis 4 months after slow improve ment | |
| 127 | М | 27 | 6 15 | 18 1 | 11 01 | Very severe dermatitis Later | |
| 140 | М | 40 | 7 24 | 15 7 | 8 14 | Severe dermatitis Later re covered | |
| | | <u>'</u> | | 14 cases s | evere dermatı | tis | |
| Mini | | | 5 03 | 12 6 18 1 | 6 27 11 27 | | |
| Max Aver | | 11 | 8 55 7 26 | 14 8 | 7 63 | | |
| | | | · | 5 cases fol | lowing recove | ry | |
| Mını | mun | n. | 8 22 | 13 7 | 4 74 | | |
| Max Aver | | m | 11 08 10 49 | 17 9 15 6 | 7 43 5 91 | | |
| | | | | | | | |

^{*} S calculated from cystine

| | \u_m | | C) · ire | : | Tot | al ritro | | \ | 512'- | 3 · |
|--|--------|-------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
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| | | ser ceri | \$er cen | \$er cent | ser cert | fer cen' | ter cert | per cent | fer cent | t- |
| Normal | 36 | 8 77 | 13 38 | 10 97 | 126 | 18 7 | 155 | 4 61 | 5 92 | 5 10 |
| Pellagra Group I Severe with dermatitis Group II Severe without der- | 14 | 5 03 | 8 55 | 7 26 | 12 6 | 18 1 | 14 8 | 6 27 | 11 27 | 7 63 |
| matitis | 6 | 8 93 | 11 98 | 10 61 | 126 | 18 3 | 162 | 4 71 | 617 | 571 |
| Group III Healing Group IV | 10 | 9 26 | 11 93 | 10 47 | 13 5 | 17 6 | 15 5 | 1 57 | 6 16 | 5 56 |
| Cured | 21 | | 15 42 | 1 | 136 | 198 | 163 | 4 53 | 7 13 | 5 40 |
| Syphilis | 20 | 3 | 13 55 | | 14 1 | 21 9 | 169 | 4 81 | 7 11 | 5 95 |
| Tuberculosis | 1 5 | 110 28 | 113 64 | 111 66 | 151 | 188 | 163 | 4 63 | 591 | 5 25 |

THERE I Summary of cystine, total natinger and N Sections pages noils

varies from 877 to 1338 per cent with an average of 1097 per cent and total nitrogen varies from 126 to 187 per cent with average of 158 per cent. The N S ratio averages 540 and remains relatively constant with extremes of 461 and 592. The greater range of cystine in our group compared to that of Sullivan, using essentially the same method, may possibly be explained on the basis of variation in selection of individuals for the "normal" group.

Cystire content of finger nails in pellagra, syphilis, and pulmonary tuberculosis

The pellagrins are arranged into four arbitrary groups. Group I, severe pellagra with extensive dermatitis, Group II, severe pellagra without dermatitis, Group III, pellagra during recovery, and Group IV, completely healed pellagra. An exfoliative dermatitis of the hands, arms, and feet and in most cases of the legs and thighs had been apparent in the 14 cases in Group I for at least two months. All cases were extremely ill at the time of the determination and Cases 101, 108, and 115 (see Table II) died with manition soon after the observation. A stomatitis was common to all and several had in addition diarrhea, psychosis, or dementia. In this group (see Figure 1, C and Table I) cystine is greatly reduced averaging 7.26 per cent. The highest result, 8.55 per cent, falls below the lover limit of the normal range. In Cases 120 and 127 (see Table I) in which

^{*} S calculated from cystine

lagra during which time the patient remained on an adequate diet containing an abundance of all vitamins. Thirteen had recovered from severe pellagra with extensive dermatitis, four from severe pellagra of the gastro intestinal or central nervous system type in which dermatitis had been absent or played a minor role, and four from mild diarrhea and slight dermatitis. In this group (see Figure 1 F and Table I) cystine varies from 8.22 to 15.42 per cent. Two results, 14.49 per cent and 15.42 per cent, he above the upper normal limit. Total nitrogen varies from 13.6 to 19.8 per cent also showing a greater variation than normal in the upper limit. Both the average cystine and total nitrogen approximate the average of the normal group

The group of 20 luetics consists of patients treated for at least two months at the syphilis dispensary of the Duke Hospital, and although at the time the analyses were mide, none had active lesions, all had a history of luetic infection and the blood Wassermann test had been four positive. The group is representative of widely divergent dietaries as observed in mill hands, farmers, shopkeepers etc in the pellagra belt. No definite deficiency could be ascribed to any diet although several of the patients were obviously malnourished and many consumed large amounts of corn and fat pork to the exclusion of fruits and other vegetables and meats Cystine varies more widely in this group (see Figure 1 and Table I) than in the normal, 8 20 to 13 55 per cent, in three cases the result falling below the lower limit of normal and in one case above the upper limit. However, the average for the group 10 64 per cent, approximates the normal average. Total introgen tends to be increased varying from 14 1 to 21 9 per cent and averaging 16 9 per cent, thereby increasing the average N. S. ratio to 5 95

The 5 cases of pulmonary tuberculosis gave histories of loss of 20 to 60 pounds of weight during the preceding months and were obviously malnourished, judging by the severe emaciation. Cystine and total nitrogen tend to be above normal in these cases (see Figure 1, G and Table I), cystine ranging from 10 28 to 13 64 per cent and averaging 11 66 per cent and total nitrogen from 15 1 to 18 8 per cent and averaging 16 3 per cent. Because of the concomitant rise of both cystine and total nitrogen the N. S. ratio values fall within normal limits.

DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY

The foregoing results support the opinion that there is an abnormality of sulfur metabolism in pellagra which is reflected in epithelial tissue and specifically related to the dermatitis of this disease. A study of the data from 36 normals and 20 cases of syphilis shows no constant variation of cystine with difference in sex race, or age. Since cystine was reduced and N S ratio increased in the finger nails from all of the 14 cases of pellagra with severe dermatitis, whereas in all cases of pellagra without

dermatitis was most extensive and severe, cystine content is the lowest, 503 per cent and 615 per cent. A determination three months before the appearance of dermatitis and diarrhea in Case 119 (see Table I) is of particular interest since at that time the cystine content was 1440 per cent. At this time, because of emaciation, the patient was taking a diet rich in vitamins and calories. Later he refused food and in three month developed a severe dermatitis. Six months after the original observation cystine had decreased to 7.85 per cent, a reduction of 46 per cent. In five cases results were obtained following recovery (see Table II). Cystine had returned to normal limits in all cases and at this time the average cystine, 10.49 per cent, was but slightly below the average for the normal group. Total introgen remained practically unchanged varying from 12.6 to 18.1 per cent with an average of 14.8 per cent. The reduction in cystine results in a relative increase in the N. S. ratio.

Group II, severe pellagra without dermatitis, consists of six cases four extremely emaciated, weak, demented individuals suffering from a persistent diarrhea of 15 to 25 stools a day for at least the past two months, and two cases with vicious dementia and mild diarrhea, weakness, and glossitis of seven and of thirty months duration. Although diarrhea was resistant to treatment, all cases recovered after a prolonged improved dietary regime. Skin lesions were observed in only one case and in this case the discoloration and fine desquamation over the feet were so greatly eclipsed by the violent dementia and diarrhea that he is included in this group. However, it is interesting to note that cystine in this case, 8.93 per cent, is the lowest value in the group. All values for cystine and total nitrogen (see Figure 1, D and Table I) fall within normal limits, cystine ranging from 8.93 to 11.98 per cent, and total nitrogen from 12.6 to 18.3 per cent. The average N. S ratio approximates that of the normal group. Determinations after recovery in two cases show no striking change in cystine nor in total nitrogen.

Group III consists of 10 cases all of whom had been recovering for the past two or three months from mild dermatitis of the feet and hands, and stomatitis. Intermittent diarrhea had been common and four cases had developed temporary psychoses. At the time of analyses dermatitis had disappeared and all vere much improved. Cystine varied from 9.26 to 11.93 per cent, averaging 10.47 per cent, and total nitrogen 13.5 to 17.6 per cent with an average of 15.5 per cent, all vithin normal limits (see Figure 1, E and Table I). The N. S. ratio averaged 5.56 vith extreme of 4.57 and 6.16. Results from three cases following complete recovery showed no change except in one case in which cystine increased from 9.37 per cent to 12.25 per cent, total nitrogen from 15.4 per cent to 16.9 per cent and the N. S. ratio from 6.16 to 5.16.

There are 21 cases of beoled pellegra in Group IV. In this group analyses were made 3 to 6 months after disappearance of all signs of pells.

lagra during which time the patient remained on an adequate diet containing an abundance of all vitamins. Thirteen had recovered from severe pellagra with extensive dermatitis, four from severe pellagra of the gastro-intestinal or central nervous system type in which dermatitis had been absent or played a minor role, and four from mild diarrhea and slight dermatitis. In this group (see Figure 1 F and Table I) cystine varies from 8.22 to 15.42 per cent. Two results 14.49 per cent and 15.42 per cent, he above the upper normal limit. Total nitrogen varies from 13.6 to 19.8 per cent also showing a greater variation than normal in the upper limit. Both the average cystine and total nitrogen approximate the average of the normal group

The group of 20 luetics consists of patients treated for at least two months at the syphilis dispensary of the Duke Hospital, and although at the time the analyses were made none had active lesions, all had a history of luetic infection and the blood Wassermann test had been four positive. The group is representative of widely divergent dietaries as observed in mill-hands, farmers, shopkeepers, etc. in the pellagra belt. No definite deficiency could be ascribed to any diet although several of the patients were obviously malnourished and many consumed large amounts of corn and fat pork to the exclusion of fruits and other vegetables and meats Cystine varies more widely in this group (see Figure 1 and Table I) than in the normal, 8 20 to 13 55 per cent in three cases the result falling below the lower limit of normal and in one case above the upper limit. However, the average for the group 10 64 per cent approximates the normal average. Total nitrogen tends to be increased varying from 14 1 to 21 9 per cent and averaging 16 9 per cent, thereby increasing the average N. S. ratio to 5.95

The 5 cases of pulmonary tuberculosis gave histories of loss of 20 to 60 pounds of weight during the preceding months and were obviously malnourished judging by the severe emaciation. Cystine and total introgen tend to be above normal in these cases (see Figure 1, G and Table I) cystine ranging from 10.28 to 13.64 per cent and averaging 11.66 per cent, and total introgen from 15.1 to 18.8 per cent and averaging 16.3 per cent. Because of the concomitant rise of both cystine and total nitrogen the N. S. ratio values fall within normal limits.

DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY

The foregoing results support the opinion that there is an abnormality of sulfur metabolism in pellagra which is reflected in epithelial tissue and specifically related to the dermatitis of this disease. A study of the data from 36 normals and 20 cases of syphilis shows no constant variation of cystine with difference in sex race, or age. Since cystine was reduced and N S ratio increased in the finger nails from all of the 14 cases of pellagra with severe dermatitis, whereas in all cases of pellagra without

dermatitis cystine and total nitrogen remained approximately normal it is reasonable to assume that the reduction of cystine in finger nail is clock related to the pathological changes in the epidermal tissues in pellagra. This would seem to indicate that a lack of cystine or deficient utilication of this amino acid becomes manifest in the skin lesions of pellagra. On the other hand, such a deficiency of cystine cannot be held responsible for the entire symptom complex of pellagra, since cases of pellagra without dermatitis in whom there is no diminution of cystine in the epidermal tissue, as indicated by our data, are common

Goldberger and Tanner (24) at one time advanced the theory of a deficiency of amino acids as the probable cause of pellagra and suggested that a deficiency in the supply or utilization of the amino acid, cystine, resulted in pellagra. Support for this theory in explaining the skin lesions of pellagra is given by the work of Harris and of Ward previously cited and by our data. Rough estimations of cystine in the dietary of our patients who developed pellagra failed to show a deficiency in the supply of cystine although a vitamin deficiency was probable. The high cystine values in the finger nails in the group following dietary treatment may indicate greater cystine utilization influenced by adequate vitamin consumption. However, as pointed out by Smith (25), the foods used in the treatment of pellagra contain large amounts of cystine and the increased concentration in healed cases may be due to increased intake of this amino acid per se, especially since Beadles et al. (26) have demonstrated that the rat's coat of hair becomes heavier when the diet is supplemented with cystine.

Injections of thiosulfate have been advocated and extensively used with apparent benefit in the treatment of pellagra. Sabry (27) reports that the skin lesions of pellagra disappear after a few injections, and that there is marked improvement of diarrhea and of the central nervous system manifestations of this disease after a short course of treatment, consisting of daily intravenous 10 cc injections of 10 per cent solution of sodium thiosulfate. Although Goldberger et al. (19, 20) have demonstrated that pellagra may be prevented and cured by supplying the pellagra-preventing factor (vitamin G) in the diet of the pellagrin, and although the thiosulfate treatment is usually combined with an improved dietary regime, in view of the demonstrated alteration in sulfur metabolism, it is likely that thiosulfate is of some benefit to the pellagrin and that some of the rapid improvements observed may be due to this factor directly.

Although we cannot conclude that because of a reduction of cystine in finger nails there must be a reduction of cystine in the skin and therefore an increased sensitiveness to light, it is reasonable to suspect that a reduction of nail cystine is accompanied by a reduction of skin cystine. We contemplate further experimental v ork to determine the importance of this change in sulfur metabolism and its relation to solar radiation in pellagra

CONCLUSIONS

- 1 The cystine content of finger nails was determined in 36 normal subjects in 40 cases of various forms and stages of pelligra and in 25 cases of syphilis and tuberculosis
- 2 In 14 cases of pellagra with extensive dermatitis there was a marked reduction in the cystine content without any appreciable change in the total protein content of the finger nails. With the subsidence of skin symptoms and improvement in the clinical condition, the cystine content returned to normal limits.
- 3 In severe pelligrims without dermatitis (involvement chiefly of the gastro intestinal or central nervous systems) and in partially or completely cured cases of pelligra there were no marked changes in the cystime content of the finger nails
- 4 Values for cystine content of the finger nails from a group of syphilities and from a group of tuberculous patients were found to approximate the normal range regardless of the nutritional state of the patient

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THE PRODUCTION OF EXPERIMENTAL PLAUT-VINCENT'S ANGINA IN THE DOG

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(Received for publication May 29 1933)

Since the original description of Plaut-Vincent's anging some fifty years ago a voluminous literature on this subject has accumulated. It is not the purpose of this paper to review the literature in any detail as this has been done elsewhere (1, 2). However, it may be stated briefly that the disease was described in 1883 by Miller (18) in 1894 by Plaut (3), and in 1896 by Vincent (4) as manifested by sore and bleeding guins foul breath and in severe cases by eventual ulceration of the mouth. They described the causative micro organisms as a spirochete and a fusiform bacillus. Since then these organisms have been found associated with pathological lesions in practically every part of the body but especially in the upper digestive system the lungs, and the genitalia

Upon the isolation of the etiological agents the question was immediately rused as to whether they were separate entities or different forms of the same micro organism. Weaver and Tunicliff (5) succeeded early in cultivating the fusiform bacillus from a patient with Vincent's angina and on the basis of further work. Tunicliff (6) has stated that she believes the spirochete and bacillus are the same organism in different stages of a definite lafe cycle. Some workers (7) have supported her but others (8) and in particular Pratt (9) have come to the conclusion that these are two distinct micro organisms.

The early literature stressed the infectious nature of the disease but more recent observations indicate that the causative organisms are found in the normal mouth rather constantly and that the inception of infection depends on the presence of certain predisposing factors. Pratt found fusiform bacilli in 100 per cent of the two hundred people routinely examined at a large hospital. She also found the fusiform bacillus constantly and the spirochete occasionally in normal monkeys guinea pigs and rabbits. Other workers have reported analogous findings in these and other animals (2). Thus it would seem that the fusiform bacillus at least is present in the healthy mouth and is not in itself pathogenic. This is borne out by our work. Of forty dogs examined thirty eight showed the bacillus and in those with poor teeth, spirochetes were usually present in the teeth pockets.

¹ Vincent's angina is a recognized disease of the dog's mouth

Many attempts have been made to reprovince the discussion, a nor ally the 1923 Klime (10) produced abscesses in the training ediground again applimiecting membrines from cases of Vincent's insing. Somewhat later's a (11) succeeded in producing similar abscesses in the untrainmate of come apa groin by injection of material treshly obtained from human eres. He tu nar rected into the lungs of robbits pus from these experimental absects which showed spirochetes and fusiform bacilli in addition to other nucro ori imsa Of ten ribbits intected to it developed lung abscesses three gangrens two pneumonia and one bronchiectisis. From certain of these lesions he isolated spirochetes and tustform builli. Randall (12) injected scripings from the gums of patients suffering from Vincent's incin i into white rits, and Wigen's (13) into kittens without success. Both workers used animals red on a det ciency diet as well as normal ones. Wagener (13) traumatized the runs severely in some instances and made deep artificial pockets into which she miceted the material but the wounds healed and no fusitorm builly or spiro chetes could be recovered. Lichtenberg. Werner and Lucek (14) were unable to produce lesions in guine) pigs by the injection of pure cultures of justform bueilli into traumatized tissues, but did find spirochetes and fusitorm bueilli in the membranes which tormed over ulcers induced by injury of the mouth in normal guines pigs

While the above data indicate that experimental lesions of the groin and hing have been induced by the implantation of spirochetes and fusitorin bacilly the reproduction in animals of the clinical symptoms of Vincent's angula has not been successful

In the spring of 1931 one of the authors (15) observed that a group of the dogs which he had been injecting duly with one of the squill gluco-sides namely, scillaren B developed a peculiar mouth condition similar to that found in Plaut-Vincent's discuse. Sincars from the mouths of the edogs showed the typical fusiform bacilli and spirochetes in large numbers. This observation suggested a possible method for the experimental production of Vincent's angina

METHODS AND MATERIALS

mal was injected daily intravenously. The dogs injected with scillaren B were not run in a single series but one or two at a time simultaneously with other animals receiving different squill glucosides. A total of forty eight dogs were used. Each drug was tested on eight dogs. Conditions of care, hygiene, and type of food were identical for all the dogs.

The dogs used in the present experiments were selected primarily for their good teeth and gums they were all lively and in excellent condition. For the eise of handling the small terrier type was chosen. Temperature and pulse were taken twice daily weight and (in the case of five dogs) a white count once a div. Detailed records by means of sketches and notes were made daily of the teeth gums and mouth of each animal. At the same time smears were taken from each side of the mouth the incisors and any suspicious pockets. The smears were stained by Tunicliff's method. All the animals were kept under excellent conditions and were well fed. The food given contained adequate amounts of the various vitamins.

A saline solution of the drug was injected draly into the antebrachial vein of the dog's foreleg. About 0.30 of the lethal dose was given for the first three days and subsequently 0.25 of the lethal dose until death. (The lethal dose is measured by the Hatcher Brody cat method is 0.1 mgm, per kilo of body weight.) Photographs were taken of the dogs mouths before the injection of the drug was begun in various stages of the disease and in two cases five minutes after death.

Autopsies were performed immediately after death. Particular attention was paid to the mouth esophagus stomach tracher lungs heart and kidneys. Tissues from ulcerating areas as well as normal and only slightly affected regions were excised and sectioned. These tissues were usually fixed in Zenker's acetic (in the case of the silver methods for spirochetes 10 per cent neutral formalin was also used). The sections were for the most part stained with Giema's stain prepared by Grubler as this was found to stain both the spirochetes and fusiform bacilli distinctly and also to give the best histological picture. Levaditi's silver method for spirochetes was also of value.

During the course of the disease in the animals numerous cultures from the mouth were made

E\PERIMENT\L

In the present study eleven dogs six males and five females were in jected with scillaren B. All of them developed the characteristic lesions and bacteriological findings of Vincent's angina. In three dogs (4.5 and 8. Table I) the lesions were minimal consisting of redness and sensitive ness of the guins with some bleeding discoloration of the teeth and the presence of numerous fusiform brailli and some spirochetes. Two of these three animals 5 and 8 both of them very young dogs, died of an acute respiratory infection at this stage. Dogs 1.3. 10 and 11 exhibited a well marked clinical picture of the disease with one or two ulcerations. Dogs 2.6.7 and 9 developed a severe form of the infection. In all these eight

³ The strin inide up of 90 cc of a saturated 95 per cent alcoholic solution of Grubler's gentian violet idded to 10 cc of 5 per cent phenol was poured over the dried smears and steamed for tive minutes. The slides were then washed with tap water blotted with filter paper, and examined under oil.

⁴ Not fuso spirochet il as far as could be determined

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tant 1 Summary of data animals the molars became black and the canines a very dark brown. Ulceration of various parts of the cheeks and tongue occurred. These ulcers were usually one to two centimeters in diameter. Several were considerably larger. There was much bleeding from the lesions.

As the disease progressed in a similar fashion in all the dogs a general description may be made. During the first two days, the dogs were ap parently normal but after the injection on the third day, they all vonited profusely and were somewhat depressed. By this time smears from the mouth usually showed a decided increase in the number of small, short fusiform bacilli. By the fourth or fifth day vomiting was acute and very little food was enten. The teeth generally the posterior molars and cannes were somewhat discolored the gum margins showed a narrow line of inflammation and the smears from these regions contained quantities of short fusiform bacilli and a sprinkling of spirochetes. By the sixth day the dogs were no longer lively or responsive although the vomiting was not as acute. The gums were markedly inflamed and bleeding, the teeth darker, and the smears showed larger and more typical eigar shaped breilli and also spirochetes From the seventh to the fourteenth day the teeth became progressively darker until all but the incisors were a dark brown the gums bled profusely and were very friable and ulcers formed on the gums cheek and tongue (Fig 1) The smears showed large typical fusiform bacilli and spirochetes Quantities of the latter were found wherever there was a bleeding and necrotic pocket

During the injections the dogs lost a great deal of weight in some cases almost half the original body weight. There was no fever but rather a drop in temperature during the last few days of the disease

The white blood cell counts made on the first three dogs showed a decided increase at first but one or two days before death the leukocytes dropped considerably though not always below what might be considered normal. In Dog 4 the white count did not go down but remained at a rather high level. This animal exhibited the mildest lesions in the series Dog 5 which died of a concurrent respiratory infection, showed a rise in the white blood cells to 20,000. However, the leukocytosis apparently did not hinder the development of the Vincent's angina.

The animals died on an average about the fourteenth day in ventricular fibrillation. However, one dog died as early as the seventh day and another (Dog 4) did not succumb to twenty eight injections. Most of the dogs were injected until they succumbed from the cumulative effects of the drug. In two animals the drug was discontinued as shown in Table I (Dogs 4 and 9). Dog 9 recovered from a severe attack of the experimental disease and two months later when a smear from the mouth showed only the few fusiform breilli usually found in normal dogs, he was again injected and developed a pronounced Vinicent's angula as before After a second recovery and a three months interval a third attack was induced. The second and third attacks were not as severe as the first



used for other experimental purposes 5 Dogs 5 and 8, the two animals that died of a respiratory infection had a final temperature of 104 and 105° Γ respectively. However early in the course of the disease their temperatures were normal

As shown in the table the average pulse rate for three days before in jection was about 112. After the injection of the drug an initial progres sive slowing of the heart occurred. Electrocardiograms taken at the time when the rate was slowest showed the heart to be in a condition of partial to complete block. Apparently the drug in this phase of its action progressively langthened the conduction time until there was complete dissociation between auticular and ventricular contractions. The day on which the pulse was slowest generally occurred about the middle of the injection period. Later as more toole amounts of the drug accumulated the heart rate increased. Apparently the ventricular musculature itself was stimulated. Ectopic foci appeared at various points in the ventricle, producing irregular QRS—T complexes of high potential and bizarre shapes. Before death the heart rate was usually too rapid to be counted.

Attempted transmission

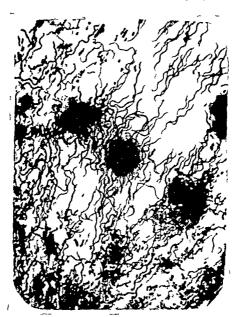
Several control animals were kept in the room with the injected dogs and although they were allowed to eat out of the same pan as dogs with well advanced cases of Vincent's angina they did not contract the disease. Swabs were then taken from the necrotic pockets in the gums of Dogs 6 and 7 and pushed into the gum margins of the control animals without any apparent effect save that in one dog, whose physical condition was somewhat poorer than the others, there was some transient local redness and tenderness of the gums.

Pathology

At autopsy lesions were found only in the mouth. All the internal organs appeared normal. An extremely foul odor came from the mouth when it was opened. The teeth were badly discolored the cannos and molars being the most affected. Accrotic pockets filled with spirochetes were usually present at the base of these discolored teeth. In only one animal (Dog 3) were the measors affected. In this instance, the molars were less involved than the measors and the single ulcar present was at the base of the lower measors. In Dogs 2, 6, 7, and 9 there were extensive cheek ulcers on both sides of the mouth. The first three of these dogs also had from one to five ulcers on the tongue one to two centimeters long and one half to one centimeter wide. The largest ulcers were those on the cheek of Dog 7, where the whole right side of the mouth was involved. All the ulcers although irregular in shape, had well defined margins, and

 $^{^{\}rm 5}\,{\rm This}\,{\rm dog}$ was subsequently to und to be unusually resistant to infection with pneumococci and streptococci

fusiform bacilli only became numerous about the sixth day at which time spirochetes and necrosis also appeared. The spirochetes were found in abundance in the poclets and necrotic regions (Fig. 2). The typical'



Γισ 2 Dog No 9

Smear taken from necrotic pocket in gum on tenth day of disease shows masses of spirochetes $~1200\,\times$

Vincent's angina smear (Fig. 3) could be obtained at the end of the first week of injection and at any subsequent time. In this microphotograph the spore like character of the fusiform bacilli may be seen. Long filaments of fusiform bacilli were not uncommonly observed (Fig. 4). In some cases they resembled the filamentous forms seen in the cultures and sections. The smears at this time showed practically no other organisms than the fusiform bacilli and spirochetes.

A study of a number of human cases of Vincent's angina gave analogous findings. They showed all the variations of the fusiform bacilli that were present in the dogs mouths. Likewise in the human cases the spirochetes were found in the teeth pockets or deep in the necrotic tissue such as occurred in tonsillar crypts.

Fig. 3. Dos 70.6. Sincer report to the second sound of the second sound sound of the second sound so

Cultures were taken from the dogs mouths when the smears showed many spirochetes and fusiform brailli. A number of cultures were also made from the pockets about the teeth ulcers and regions where the smears showed a predominance of one micro organism or the other. Most of the cultures were made with material from Dog 9

Various culture media were used. The fusiform bacilli grew furly well on rabbit's blood agar (one part of the blood to three parts of beef infusion agar pH 74 to 76) but not nearly as readily as on ascitic agai (one part of ascitic fluid to three parts of a beef infusion agar pH 74 to 76). Ascitic agar and a beef infusion—ascitic broth (three parts of one per cent dectrose beef infusion broth to one part ascitic fluid, pH 74 to 76) were our most satisfactory media. With Loeffler's medium recommended by Tunicliff, we were less successful. We also used Noguchi's leptospira medium (17) in an attempt to grow the spirochetes.

All the cultures were grown maerobically. Although we tried maero bic plates as well as amerobic jars in which the air had been evacuated and replaced with CO or nitrogen, we found that Wright's anaerobic method besides being the simplest was also the best for our purpose. Test tubes were stoppered by cotton saturated with a five per cent NaOH solution. A small amount of pyrogallic acid was placed on top of this and the tube corked, and sealed with paraffin. Incubating temperature was 37° C.

We were able to isolate colonies of the fusiform bacilli quite readily after forty eight hours incubation. They were minute and while not absolutely transparent, they seemed so when contrasted with the opaque colonies of cocci which formed the bulk of the growth. Single colonies were transferred to ascitic agar slants and were maintained in pure culture without difficulty. Transplants to fresh media were made every three days for two weeks and subsequently every two weeks for three months. After some months the bacillary forms became more or less degenerate although a slant examined eleven months subsequent to the initial culture still contained some recognizable fusiform bacilli. At no time were we able to cultivate the spirochetes—even when the inoculum was obtained from pockets showing practically a pure growth of spirochetes nor did we find spirochetes at any time in our cultures of fusiform bacilli. Subcultures of fusiform bacilli in leptospira medium yielded only fusiform bacilli.

The fusiform bacilli in the pure cultures were small at first, but grew rapidly to the usual size and subsequently into the long filamentous forms which at times stretched completely across the microscopic field. They were also often way, and to the casual observer might be taken for spiro chetes. They were however much larger than the Vincent's spirochete and under dark field examination were seen to be non mobile.

As a rule once the fusiform bacilli had attained the filamentous stage they showed no further change. Occasionally small fusiform bacilli appeared in cultures in which only filamentous forms had been observed for

that the injection of scillaren B disturbs inetabolic processes in such a man ner as to lower the resistance of the buccal mucous membrane to the spiro chetes and fusiform bacilli normally present. Whether this deleterious effect of the drug is principally a generalized or a local one we do not know. While it is true that the animals all showed marked gastro intestinal disturbances and an associated loss in weight these same effects were produced to an equal degree by the other squill derivatives employed but without the subsequent development of fuso spirochetal mouth lesions except in one instance. Thus it would seem that either the general effect of scillaren B is of a peculiar nature or that it produces a characteristic local disturbance not shown by the five other closely related compounds. The exerction of the drug locally in the mouth cannot be ruled out as a cause of the lesion but neither can it be determined as such since the amounts injected are far too small to render recovery of the drug possible. It is of course con ceivable that the production of the lesions in the mouth by this one squill glucoside is due to impurities in the preparation rather than to the conpound itself Of two lots of scillnen B used one was found to cause the development of the experimental disease much more quickly than the other

The data presented indicate that a leukopenia is not a factor in favoring inception of the disease nor does a leukocytosis appear to influence its course

Our unsuccessful attempts to transmit the disease to healthy dogs while too few in number to permit conclusions suggest that the fusiform bacilly and spirochetes may not be pathogenic for the normal animal even when applied to the guins and mucous membranes of the mouth in large numbers. In a recent paper, Lichtenberg and his co-workers (14) question the pathogenicity of these micro organisms for normal human beings. However, there are well authenticated reports in the literature of small epidemics of Vincent's angina among normal persons living under apparently healthful conditions. This leads one to infer that either the normal dog possesses a greater natural resistance to the fuso spirochetal micro organisms than do human beings or that the strain found commonly in the dog differs in pathogenicity from that occurring in the human mouth

With the evidence available we feel that it is not yet possible to draw definite conclusions concerning the identity or non identity of the spirochete and fusiform breillus. Our cultural studies do suggest that these are two distinct microbial forms. If the fusiform breillus and the spirochete represented different phases of a single life cycle one might expect that in a culture medium highly favorable to the multiplication of the breillary form the spirochetal phase would develop. However, since we have not been able to contrive sufficiently favorable conditions in the test tube for the growth of spirochetes freshly isolated from the lesions, we have no means of knowing whether or not spirochetes would evolve from fusiform bacilli were a suitable growth medium provided.

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THE EFFECTS OF ALTERNATE SUCTION AND PRESSURE ON BLOOD FLOW TO THE LOWER EXTREMITIES

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From the therapeutic standpoint patients with peripheral vascular disease are divided into two groups, (a) those whose symptoms are due to simple spasm with no, or very slight, organic vascular obstruction and (b) those whose symptoms are due primarily to advanced organic disease of the arteries. The symptoms of the first group can usually be alleviated by producing vasodilatation with drugs diathermy, local heat in the form of the warm cradle, or sympathetic ganglionectomy. The efficacy of these therapeutic procedures depends upon local dilatation of the peripheral blood vessels

In more advanced stages, however, obliterative structural disease has usually progressed until the arterial vessels are transformed into rigid tubes. These diseased vessels have not only abnormally small lumina but are also more or less incapable of dilatation even when vasomotor tone is reduced by nerve block or by sympathetic ganglionectomy. When the arteries have thus lost their power of dilating the therapeutic procedures mentioned above fail to increase blood flow and therefore fail to improve the nutrition of the tissues. Eventually many of these patients with advanced organic disease of the arteries suffer from trophic changes, ulceration and gangrene leading finally to amputation. Any procedure which tends to increase blood flow in the presence of organic occlusion might be of benefit in delaying or possibly in preventing the appearance of gangrene.

According to Poiseuille's law the amount of fluid flowing through a rigid tube depends upon the fall in pressure along the tube. If other factors remain constant doubling the peripheral fall in blood pressure should approximately double the amount of blood flowing through the rigid arterial vessels. The total fall in pressure in the peripheral vascular system may be increased in two ways (a) by elevating systemic blood pressure or (b) by diminishing capillary and venous blood pressures. The first method is impracticable for numerous reasons. It seemed possible, however, that capillary and venous blood pressures might be reduced temporarily to negative values (i.e., below atmospheric pressure) by applying suction to the skin of the extremity

The full effect of externally applied negative pressure can only be obtained if there be a reservoir capable of accommodating the blood which

has flowed through the carrowed arteries. The capillaries and veins who not constricted offer such a reservoir—of limited capacity. Landis at 1 Gibbon (1) observed that inflating a pacumatic cutf on the upper are to a pressure of 30 cm, water for 5 minutes increased the volume of a segment of forearm by 25 cc of which 3 cc consisted of extraviseular fluid while 22 cc consisted of blood trapped in the congested peripheral vessels. Similarly, a venous pressure of 60 cm, water during 6 minutes increased the volume by 38 cc of which 7 cc, was extravascular fluid and 31 cc, was blood in the congested vessels. The total volume of the segment of fore arm was 720 cc, so that at pressures of 30 and 60 cm, water the reservoir available was 3 and 4 cc, per 100 cc, of arm respectively. Average blood flow in the normal forearm amounts usually to less than 5 cc, per minute per 100 cc, of tissue (Lewis and Grant (2)). Hence, with a slight rise of pressure the veins and capillaries can accommodate the blood flowing through normal vessels during a period of approximately one minute.

From these observations it seemed possible that the periodic application of negative pressure to the surface of the lower extremity might be expected to increase blood flow even though the arterioles had been chimied into rigid tubes by reason of structural disease. Moreover, if the suction were applied for relatively short periods of time the efficiency of the method vould be greater since the available reservoir would not be filled to capacity during any one suction period. The accumulation of blood in the capillaries and veins must lead to stretching of their walls, the resist mee to further distention increasing as the amount of trapped blood become greater. This resistance would of course, lessen the effect of external suction on the peripheral drop in blood pressure particularly if suction vere prolonged. It seemed essential, therefore, not only to use relatively brief periods of suction but also to empty the capillary and venous beds of their contained blood after each brief suction period, so that space might be available for the accommodation of fresh arterial blood to be drawn in during the succeeding suction period. Therefore, suction and pressure v ere applied alternately

The effects of alternate suction and pressure on flow have been studied in a circulatory schema and in the lower extremities of normal subject and of patients with peripheral vascular disease. This paper provides objective evidence that blood flow can be increased by this means. The clinical value of this procedure will be considered in later publications. It seemed advisable first to demonstrate objectively and under controlled conditions, the correctness of the working hypothesis.

was 28 cm wide 75 cm long 28 cm high at the proximal end and 34 cm high at the distal end. These dimensions permitted the lower extremity to be inserted to a point approximately 8 inches above the knee joint (Fig. 1). The upper

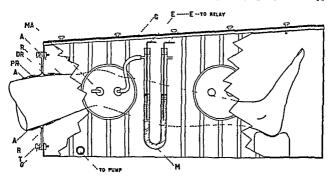


Fig 1 Diagram of Aluminium Box Used to Apply Suction and Pressure to the Lower Extremity

For description see text

surface of the box could be removed and consisted of a sheet of shatter proof glass (G) mounted in a holder which was screwed down upon a rubber gasket. The foot and leg could thus be observed during the application of suction and pressure The proximal end of the box contained a circular opening (O) measuring 25 cm in diameter which was fitted with a rubber cuff screwed tightly against the end of the box by means of thumb screws (T) consisted of a semi rigid ring (R) of rubber and canvas with an external diameter of 28 cm and an internal diameter of 14 cm. The internal portion of the cuff consisted of two leaves of lighter flexible rubber having a thickness of 15 to 2 mm These leaves were conical in shape, the smaller end of one (PR) being directed toward the hip while the smaller end of the other (DR) was directed toward the knee The dimensions of the cuff were adjusted for different subjects so that the flexible rubber fitted snugly against the skin of the thigh The fit was made as accurate as possible in order to avoid both excessive venous congestion and excessive leakage of air The rubber was held lightly in contact with the skin by adhesive tape (A) The heel rested on a sand bag and for greater comfort the lower thigh was supported by sand bags placed just within the rubber diaphragm

The interior of the box communicated through three-quarter inch rubber tubing with an air pump of the Crowell type (size 2A) having a capacity of 13 liters per minute at atmospheric pressure. The interior of the box also of municated with a mercury manometer (M) made of glass tubing with an internal diameter of 1 cm. A metal electrode (E) was inserted into each limb of the manometer. These electrodes were connected with a difference of potential and with the coil of an electrical relay. The contacts of the relay operated a one half horse power A. C. (Westinghouse. Type RV) motor connected by a leather belt to the air pump. A motor driven 3 way metal valve placed the box in communication with the intake pipe of the pump for 25 seconds, and with the

output pipe of the pump for 5 second. The inforcer and the therefore controlled automatically (by the positions of the two electrodes in that it is ter) the armond of suction or press reapplied, while the valve controlled the duration of the suction and pressure periods.

In all b, two of the observations here reported a negative pressure of 120 mm. Hg was applied for periods of 25 seconds, alternating with a positive pressure of 80 to 100 mm. Hg for periods of 5 seconds. It required approximately 3 to 5 seconds to change the pressure within the box from -120 to -120 mm. Hg. For observing the final pressures more accurately a second manner ter communicated with the interior of the box through a separate opening (MA)

The air expelled by the pump varmed in the process of compressor. Since changes in blood flow were detected by recording skin temperature it was necessary to cool the air entering the box during the pressure periods. The air was therefore passed through a honeycomb radiator immersed in water it 6 to 10° C. This prevented excessive warming of the air surrounding the lower extremity.

Changes in cutaneous blood flow in the lower extremity were measured qualitatively by observing skin temperature. Three copper-constantia juriation passed into the interior of the box through a rubber stopper inserted in the side wall. One junction was fixed to the skin at the base of the null of the first toe, another junction was similarly situated on the skin of the third toe. Lach junction was covered with one layer of adhesive plaster. The third thermil junction was suspended near the foot to record the temperature of the air around the extremity.

Since in these observations increase in blood flow was identified by elevation of skin temperature it was essential to control the observations very carefully. Therefore, while one lower extremity was placed in the aluminum box the other lower extremity was used as a control and inserted into a second box having the same dimensions and the same general shape as the aluminium box. This control box was fitted with one 10-watt and one 50 v att lamp, which could be turned on separately or together in order to keep the temperature of the up in the control box alvays above that of the air in the aluminium box.

Conditions were arranged to favor greater cooling of the extremity exposed to section and pressure. First, the sir temperature in the control box vias higher than that in the aluminium box. Second, the air in the control box vias still viale that in the aluminium box vias moving due to alternate removal and introduction of air during section and pressure respectively. Third, the extremity in the aluminium box vias slightly congested by the rubber cutfor hile the extremity in the control box vias not congested the space between the skew of the thigh and the proximal end of the control box being closed to refer the extremity as compared to it econtrol extremity, so, that if the extremity exposed to section and pressure become viarmer than the control extremity the charge right be safely ascribed to increased blood for

fluid through a partially obstructed rigid tube. In the schema various lengths of capillary glass tube simulated an arterial obstruction while a rubber bag simulated the distensible capillary and venous beds. A valve was inserted in the outflow (or venous) tube leading from the bag to simulate the venous valves.

The rate at which water flowed through the system under a pressure of 80 mm. Hg (109 cm water) was first measured over several periods of six minutes without pressure variations, i.e., with atmospheric pressure both inside and outside the box. The first column in Table 1 shows the single and average measurements of the outflow in cubic centimeters per minute \(\subseteq \text{Suction} \) (—120 mm. Hg) was then repeatedly applied to the portions of the schema within the box for varying periods—25, 55, 85, and 115 seconds—with alternate periods of pressure

Flow was uniformly greater during suction and pressure The percentage increase in flow is recorded in the right half of Table 1 Suction for 25 seconds and pressure for 5 seconds increased the outflow by 45 to 63 per cent. With longer periods of suction slightly greater increments in flow were observed since the total drop in pressure was increased for a slightly greater proportion of time, relatively less time being wasted in changing from negative to positive pressure.

B Observations on normal subjects

1 The effects of suction and pressure on the rate of cooling of the previously warm lower extremity

At low room temperatures the extremities of normal subjects cool rapidly as a result of peripheral vasoconstriction which serves to conserve heat by diminishing radiation. As shown by Gibbon and Landis (3) when the forearms are immersed in warm water maximal vasodilatation is produced in the lower extremities, and the surface temperature of the digits rises to 32° C or more. In this series of observations the subjects were exposed to low room temperatures and maximal visodilatation was first produced in the lower extremities by immersing the forearms in warm water. The rate at which the lower extremities cooled following such maximal vasodilatation was observed both with and without pressure changes in order to ascertain whether alternate suction and pressure modified the rate of cooling.

The subjects were seated on an examining table with the legs extended horizontally while the back rested against a support at an angle of 45 to 60°. The right lower extremity was placed in the control box, the air in which was kept slightly warmer than that of the aluminium box. The left lower extremity was inserted into the aluminium box through the rub ber cuff.

Figure 2A shows the characteristic result obtained when the two extremities were first warmed through peripheral vasodilatation and then

I steets of atternate suction and pressure on the sto v of eater through a circulation schema TABLE 1

| | | Outflow from venous end of schema | fchema | | | | | Aprillar in manage and increase again |
|--|---|-----------------------------------|--|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|--|--|
| | | With suction on I pressure | an f pressure | | Percentage in | Percentike Incresse in outfow produced by suction and pressure | reduced by suction | and pressure |
| Wittent owth and pressure 1 | uction 28 recents 11cs ure 8 recents | st een nds Pres me | Suction 85 seconds Pressure 5 seconds | Suction 115 econds Pre sure 5 econds | Suction 25 records Pressure 5 seconds | Syconds Pressure S seconds | tuction 85 secon 19 Pressure 5 econ 19 | Section 11 seconds 1 secon |
| 1 for minute 6, p. 170 | is for minute | ec free minuite | ce for minute | ce fer minute | fer cent 15 | fer tent | for cent | ga cent |
| 15.2 11.0 11.0 11.0 11.0 11.0 11.0 11.0 11 | 213 212 5 | 239 212 5 | $\frac{252}{252}$ } 252 | 250 251 5 | 63 | 70 | 92 | 78 |
| 0,027 | | 67 75 75 77 | 75 70 70 70 70 | | | 55 | 61 | The property control of the property of the |
| 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 1 | 7. | 77 79 76 | 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. | | 30 | <i>(</i> 0) | 79 | |

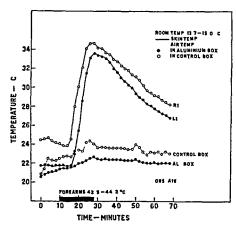


Fig 2A Control Observation Showing Cooling of the Digits of the Lower Extremities without Suction and Pressure

In this and subsequent charts R1 indicates the skin temperature of the right first digit, L1 the skin temperature of the left first digit

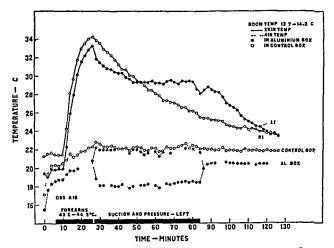


Fig 2B Showing Cooling of the Digits during Application of Suction and Pressure to the Left Lower Extremity

allowed to cool in their respective boxes within six tima and pre-mire being applied to the left lower extremity. As was to be expected on account of the warmer air in the control box, the temperature resemed during vasorilatation was higher in the right extremity. After the torearms were removed from the warm boths vasoconstructor to it increased and the right and left extremities cooled at approximately the same rate, the right extremity remaining throughout slightly warmer than the left. The subjects were chilly or shivering while the lower extremitic cooled.

Six such coatrol observations are summarized in Tible 2. Room temperature ranged from 107 to 163° C. At the beginning of the cooling period the surface temperatures of the digits were all above 33° C, the right digits being warner than the left. The duration of the cooling period varied from 38 to 58 minutes and in this time the temperatures of all the digits became lower. With one minor exception the left digits remained as cool as, or cooler than, the corresponding right digits through out the cooling period. The temperatures of the air in the aluminium and control boxes were read every two minutes. The figures recorded in Table 2 as "average temperature of air in boxes," at the beginning and end of the cooling periods represent respectively the average of the five readings made during the first 10 minutes and the last 10 minutes of the cooling period. It may be observed that the air in the control box was warmer than the air in the aluminium box by 1.1 to 1.7° C.

The relation between the surface temperatures of the right and left digits is summarized in the last two columns of Table 2. The temperature of the right first digit at the beginning of the cooling period has been subtracted from that of the left first digit observed at the same time left and right third digits have been similarly compared as regards tem perature. The minus sign indicates that the left digit was the cooler by the amount given. At the beginning of the cooling period the left digits were from 0.1 to 2.5° C cooler than the right. At the end of the cooling period the same relation existed in exaggerated form, the left digits being, with one exception, from 00 to 38° C cooler than the right. The sincle execution occurred in Observation A16 in which the left third digit became 03° C warmer than the right third digit. The figures given in the lover right hand corper of Table 2 indicate that the left digits averaged 08° C confer than the right at the beginning of the cooling period and 15° C cooler at the end of the period. These control observations show that inder the en ironmental conditions mentioned the left digits remained definitely cooler than the right of hea saction and pressure were not apn ed to the left extre aits

TABLE 2

Cooling of feet without suction and pressure

| Obser | Sub | Room tem | | Skin temp | erature | Dura tion of | peratu | ge tem re of air oxes | Difference in skin temperatu | Li Ri te Li Ri |
|--------|------|-----------|----------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| vation | ject | perature | Digit | At beginning of cooling period | At end of cooling period | cooling | Begin ning of cooling period | End of cooling period | Begin ning of cooling period | End of cooling period |
| | | C | | c | C | minutes | C | C | c | C |
| A16 | G | 13 7–15 0 | L1 L3 | 33 6 33 1 | 26 8 25 8 | 40 | 22 5 | 22 0 | -1 1 -0 5 | -14 +03 |
| 7110 | ď | 13 7-13 0 | R1 R3 | 34 7 33 6 | 28 2 25 5 | 40 | 23 9 | 23 1 | | |
| A26 | G | 11 013 8 | L1 L3 | 33 4 33 4 | 28 6 26 0 | 50 | 22 9 | 22 3 | -25 -12 | -29 00 |
| A20 | G | 11 0~13 8 | R1 R3 | 35 9 34 6 | 31 5 26 0 | 30 | 24 5 | 23 7 | | |
| A28 | G | 13 0-13 5 | L1 L3 | 34 0 33 3 | 25 3 23 6 | 38 | 20 9 | 20 1 | -10 -02 | -1 6 -0 4 |
| N20 | " | 13 0-13 3 | R1 R3 | 35 0 33 5 | 26 9 24 0 | 36 | 22 5 | 21 6 | | |
| A29 | L | 14 0-15 2 | L1 L3 | 35 9 34 6 | 32 9 30 5 | 50 | 23 6 | 22 4 | -0 2 -1 2 | -1 1 -2 1 |
| AZY | L | 14 0-15 2 | R1 R3 | 36 1 35 8 | 34 0 32 6 | 30 | 25 3 | 24 0 | | |
| A30 | L | 15 5–16 3 | L1 L3 | 34 7 33 8 | 29 3 28 0 | 58 | 21 9 | 21 6 | -0 1 -0 3 | -25 -24 |
| ASO | - | 13 3-10 3 | R1 R3 | 34 8 34 1 | 31 8 30 4 | 30 | 23 5 | 23 1 | | |
| A31 | L | 10 7-13 0 | L1 L3 | 33 4 33 7 | 27 3 26 9 | 56 | 20 5 | 19 8 | -03 -09 | -38 -36 |
| noi | - | 10 /-13 0 | R1 R3 | 33 7 34 6 | 31 1 30 5 | 20 | 22 1 | 21 5 | | |
| | | | | | | | A۱ | crage | -08 | -18 |

The air in the aluminium box became warmer during compression and cooler during rarefaction as was to be expected from physical principles. The range of these fluctuations during suction and pressure has been shown in Figure 2B (et seq.) by dividing the line showing air temperature in the aluminium box into two lines, of which the upper represents the

allowed to coil in their respective boxes without suction and pressure being applied to the left lower extremity. As was to be expected, on account of the variner air in the control box, the temperature reached during vasodilatation was higher in the right extremity. After the forearms were removed from the varin baths vasoconstrictor tone increased and the right and left extremities cooled at approximately the same rate, the right extremity remaining throughout slightly variner than the left. The subjects were chilly or shivering while the lower extremities cooled.

TABLE 3-(Continued)

| Skin temperature Difference in [Li Ri of air in boxes skin temperature [Li Ri of air in boxes skin temperature [Li Ri | End of End of and period period period pressure pressure changes | C minules minules C C C C C | 31.2 27.8 59 2.15 21.9 22.4 -0.5 +1.9 +0.5 +0.5 | 28 27 4 None 23 3 23 6 23 3 | 30.5 26.8 25.9 24.7 30.5 24.7 30.5 21.9 22.7 21.8 -0.1 +1.8 +0.3 +0.2 -1.6 -0.3 +0.3 +0.2 | 287 265 30 241 248 249 | 29 3 261 66 , 176 187 195 +01 +14 -08 | 30 3 30 0 None 20 2 21 8 21 4 | |
|---|--|-----------------------------|---|-----------------------------|---|------------------------|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------|--|
| Average tem of air in l | | <u> </u> | 21 | - | 22 | - | 181 | | |
| Duration | | | —. | <u> </u> | <u> </u> | <u>l</u> | <u> </u> | <u> </u> | |
| 1] | | mınutes | 59 | None | 30 | None | 99 | None | |
| | | υį | 27.5 | 27 4 27 0 | 26 8 24 7 | 26 5 24 5 | 28 9 26 1 | 30 0 26 9 | |
| SLín temperature | End of period of suction and pressure | U | 31.2 29.4 | 28 0 27 5 | 30.5 25.9 | 28 7 26 2 | 32 9 29 3 | 30 3 27 9 | |
| | Beginning of period of suction and pressure | o Ì | 340 | 34.9 | 34 2 | 34 3 33 8 | 33 6 31 6 | 34.2 31.5 | |
| | Digit | : | ដដ | R3 | 11 | R1 R3 | <u>គ</u> ន | R1 R3 | |
| | tem perature | S | 150-150 | 361-061 | 17 6-12 7 | 12 0 13 2 | 117-158 | | |
| | Sub | | - | 1 | ٠ | | | 1 | |
| | vation | | 410 | | A32 | | •94 | | |

* Both feet spontaneously warm-arm baths not used.

maximum temperature observed during the pressure period viole the liver-represents the minimum temperature observed during the period of such a The thermal junction recording the temperature of the air in the puriod of so, and box was connected with the galvanometer during a complete section and pressure cycle and the highest and lowest temperatures only were record. The galvanometer was of the low resistance type (Leeds and Northrup Type R) and was slightly overdamped. When relatively constant test peratures were being measured at required about 4 seconds for the 1-1 vanometer to come to rest. Positive pressure was applied for 5 excend a period slightly longer than that required for the galvanometer to reach equilibrium. The fluctuations in air temperature proved to be relatively uniform as shown in Figures 2B, 44, etc.

The air in the aluminium box was at the higher temperature for less than 34 of the time while the lower temperature prevailed for over 20 of the time. The average temperature of the air in the aluminium box would therefore be represented by a line slightly lower than midwiy between the maximum and minimum temperatures shown. Nevertheless, the air in the control box was kept warmer than the highest temperature recorded in the aluminium box since the effects of suction and pressure were being measured in terms of the cooling of the left, as compared to the right, extremity

Under these conditions, suction and pressure modified the slim temperature of the left extremity as shown in Figure 2B. The rulht digits cooled uniformly and evenly during the entire period. The left digits, however, cooled more slowly during the application of suction and pressure. In the observation illustrated in Figure 2B during the early part of the suction and pressure period the left first digit was approximately 2° cooler than the right first digit. At the end of the suction and pressure period, 57 minutes later, the left first digit was approximately 3° various the right. When suction and pressure were discontinued the left extremity began to cool much more rapidly and finally reached the same temperature as the right.

mum and the first five minimum readings. This figure is probably higher than true mean air temperature for reasons mentioned above. The air in the control box was kept approximately 2° C higher than this computed average and slightly higher than the maximum temperature in the aluminum box.

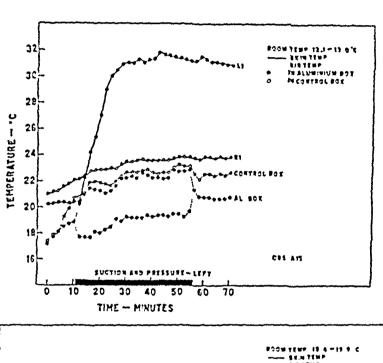
The relation between the surface temperatures of the right and left digits is summarized in the last three columns of Table 3. The temperature of the right first digit has been subtracted from that of the left first digit (a) at the beginning of pressure changes (b) at the end of pressure changes, and (c) at the end of the period without pressure changes. The third toes have been similarly compared as regards temperature.

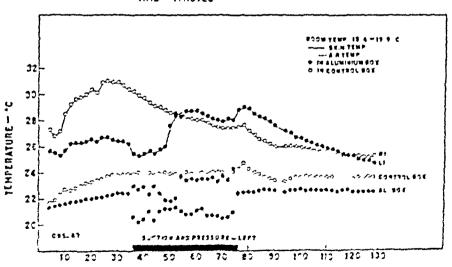
As in Table 2 a minus sign indicates that the left digit was cooler by the amount given while a plus sign indicates that the left digit was warmer. At the beginning of suction and pressure the left digits were, with one exception, from 0 to 1.7° C cooler than the right digits. At the end of the suction and pressure periods the left digits were with one exception, from 0.2 to 4.5° C warmer than the right. In the two exceptions noted the left digit cooled much less rapidly than the right, though the difference was not enough to change the sign. During the subsequent period when cooling continued without the application of suction and pressure to the left extremity, the difference between the temperatures of the two extremites diminished conspicuously. In some instances the left extremity became once more the cooler, in every instance the difference in temperature became distinctly less.

The results are summarized in the average figures recorded in the lower right hand corner of Table 3. At the beginning of suction and pressure the left digits averaged 0.8° C cooler than the right. At the end of the suction and pressure period the left digits averaged 2.2° C warmer than the right. After a period without suction and pressure this difference diminished conspicuously, finally amounting to only 0.4° C. This forms a marked contrast to the control observations recorded in Table 2 in which without suction and pressure the left digits, instead of becoming warmer, cooled slightly more rapidly than the right or control digits. The difference in the rate of cooling must be ascribed to the relatively greater flow of arterial blood into the skin of the extremity exposed to suction and pressure.

2 The influence of suction and pressure on blood flow in the cool extremities of normal subjects

The effects on skin temperature of applying suction and pressure to the cool extremity were observed in order to ascertain whether blood flow could be increased in the presence of more or less marked vasoconstrictor tone. Room temperature was low, varying from 8.9 to 19.9° C. The subjects in these observations were usually cool or cold to the point of shivering. As was to be expected under these conditions skin temperatures.





10 observations With the beginning of suction and pressure the skin temperature of the left digits began to rise more or less rapidly, while the right digits either cooled or showed no rise in temperature other than might have been expected from the gradual warming of the control box

As shown in the upper part of Table 4 suction and pressure increased blood flow in the cold extremity in 6 of 10 observations on two normal subjects. The left digits warmed by as much as 11.3° C while the right digits either cooled or warmed by not more than 2.2° C. Expressed for convenience in the form of average figures the results may be summarized by stating that in these 6 observations the left digits, exposed to suction and pressure became warmer by 6.3° C while the right digits, though exposed to a higher air temperature, became warmer by only 0.3° C.

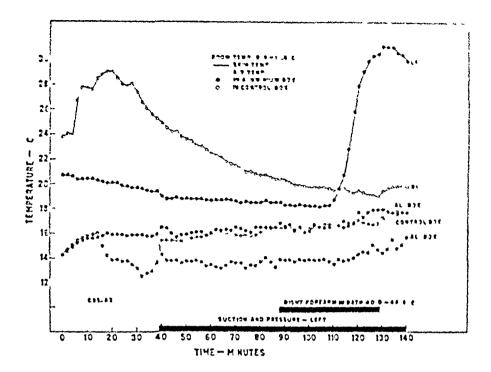
The lower section of Table 4 and the first portion of Figures 4A and 4B summarize the observations in which suction and pressure alone did not influence blood flow conspicuously. The data in Table 4 apply only to the period when suction and pressure were used without immersion of the forearms in warm water, the latter being considered in the next section. These four observations may be summarized by strting that the left digits exposed to suction and pressure (before diminishing vasoconstrictor tone by immersing one forearm in warm water) showed, on the average, no change in temperature while the right digits became cooler by 1° C though the latter were exposed to a warmer air temperature. This difference is doubtless too small to be of any real significance, though in qualitative agreement with the other observations in which larger changes were observed. High vasoconstrictor tone can apparently diminish the effects which suction and pressure exert on blood flow.

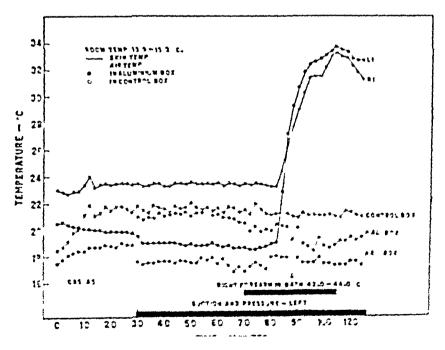
It was mentioned previously that theoretically the effects of suction and pressure would be expected to depend upon the presence of an adequate reservoir to accommodate the blood drawn through the arterioles during the suction period. It has been shown by Lewis (5) that during vasoconstriction the minute vessels of the skin can resist internal positive (or external negative) pressures of 50 to 100 mm. Hg. The negative pressure applied to the surface of the skin was - 120 mm Hg It is very doubtful whether this pressure is transmitted without loss through the surface of the skin. It is quite likely that during vasoconstriction the effective negative pressure which reaches the walls of the blood vessels could be easily withstood by vessels capable of resisting internal pressures of 50 to 100 mm Hg Under these circumstances, therefore in the absence of an adequate reservoir for the accommodation of blood flowing through the arterioles it would be expected that with high vasoconstrictor tone the effectiveness of suction and pressure would be diminished if not completely absent in some instances The effect of immersing one forearm in warm_ water (Figs 4A and 4B) is in favor of this explanation vasoconstrictor tone was reduced slightly a reservoir L

TABLE 4-(Continued)

| | | | , | | | | | | _ | | | |
|-------------|--|--|---------|--------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------|--------------|--------------|
| | | State of subject | | Chilly | | Cold shivering | | Quite chilly | | 200 | | Cold chilly |
| | Changes in skin | temperature during suction and pressure | +65 | -28 +10 | +09 | +01 | 10.8 | -48 | +06 | -03 | 80- | -02 +03 |
| | Average temperature of air in boxes | End of pressure changes | 2 7 7 | 267 | 20.2 | 213 | 151 | 163 | 191 | 203 | 191 | 21 5 |
| | Average of air | Begin ning of pressure changes | 2 | 24.1 | 198 | 21.5 | 15.2 | 15.3 | 17.2 | 209 | 193 | 21 6 |
| (communica) | Duration | of pressure and suction (left only) | mınules | None | 56 | None | 49 | None | 54 | None | 40 | None |
| T GOOD T | Skin temperature | At end of period of suction and pressure | 28 4 | 25.5 23.6 | 21.2 20.6 | 22.5 | 18 5 18 0 | 20 4 | 20 1 19 6 | 20.3 | 18 6 18 9 | 23 3 22 7 |
| | Stempe | At beginning of period of suction and pressure | 21 9 | 283 | 20 3 19 9 | 22 4 | 19 0 18 8 | 25.2 | 19 5 19 2 | 20 6 | 19 5 19 7 | 23 5 22 4 |
| | | Digit | 11. | 22 | 122 | 22 | 1121 | R1 | EE | R1 | 13 | 25.25 |
| | | Room temperature | | 10 6-16 0 | 0 37 6 77 | 0 61-7 41 | 9 0 11 8 | 0 11-0 | 136-163 | 201-001 | 13 0-15 2 | |
| | | Sub- ject | | v | | | - | . | ď | , | و |) |
| | Obser | vation num ber | | A32† | 14 | | 4.2 | | A 3 | : | | |

* Negritive pressure, 160 to 180 mm Hg for periods of 25 seconds during the last 13 minutes † Negritive pressure, 170 to 180 mm Hg for periods of 18 seconds, with positive pressure, 70 to 80 mm Hg for periods of five seconds





suction and pressure favored blood flow through the left extremity, as shown by the greater rise in skin temperature. The results suggest that the maximal effects of alternate suction and pressure can be obtained only if vasoconstrictor tone is not too great.

3 The effects of suction and pressure on the vasodilator response to immersing one forearm in warm water

Gibbon and Landis (3) showed that immersing one or two forearms in warm water produced vasodilatation, more or less complete in grade, in the lower extremities. In agreement with Levis and Pickering (4) it was observed that in general the vasodilator response began first in the warmer extremity and that the final temperature reached at the end of 35 minutes was slightly higher in the extremity originally the warmer

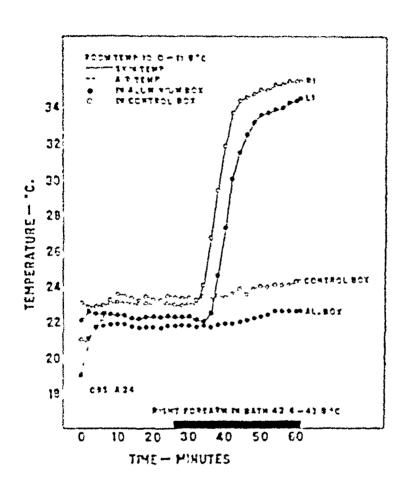
The effects of suction and pressure on the vasodilator response were studied, in order to determine v hether blood flow was modified by external pressure changes. Control observations vere made in which the vasodilator response was induced in the lover extremities without the use of suction and pressure (Fig. 5). The left extremity was placed in the aluminium box, the right in the control box, the air temperature in the latter was kept uniformly higher than that in the aluminium box. In all observations the right or control extremity via slightly warmer at the time the forearm was immersed in the warm bath. The forearm remained in the bath for 35 minutes.

In Table 54 six such control observations are summarized erage temperature of the air in the boxes v as computed as in the previous In the third column from the right the temperature of a digit v as regarded as having begun to rise when it v as 1° C above the tem parature existing when the forearms viera immersed. In agreement with previous observations the right, or varmer, digits, vith one exception, showed the vasodilator response sooner than the corresponding left, or cooler, digits In the last two columns of Table 5A the temperatures of the corresponding digits are compared as in previous tables. At the time the forearm was immersed in warm vater, the left digits were the cooler by 04 to 1.7° C vith an average difference of 11° C At the end of the 35 minute immersion period the same relationship (11th one exception) existed, the left digits remaining the cooler throughout with an a erroge difference (including the one exception) of 18° C. This agrees with previous findings and lerves as a control for those observations in which suction and pressure vere used in combination with varming of one fore arm for 35 minutes

Figures 4A and B show that suction and pressure favored the development of the vasodilator response in the lower extremity expected to pressure variations. In one observation (Fig. 4A) the warmer control extremity showed no vasodilator response whatever when the right foreign was immersed in warm mater while the left extrem y exposed to suction and

With application of suction and pressure to left lower extremity during immersion of forearm in warm hath TABLE 5-(Continued)

| Subject Subject At beginning At end of liminersion Immersion Immer | Obser | | Роош | | Skin temperature | ture | Average temperature of air in boxes | mperature 1 boxes | Time between immersion of | Difference in L1 skin temperature L3 | ure (LJ RJ |
|--|------------------|----------|-----------------|-------|--|----------------------------------|--|-------------------------------|--|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| L S 9-118 L1 18 5 3.7 15.2 C minutes C L 8 9-118 R1 204 194 15.4 169 No rise -19 C 13 7-150 L1 197 33.9 190 195 12 -0.8 C 13 7-150 R1 205 30.6 208 21.4 16 -0.8 C 13 7-150 R1 205 30.6 20.8 21.4 16 -4.0 C 13 7-150 R1 205 32.7 187 187 14 -4.8 C 13 9-15.2 R1 20.4 33.7 187 18.2 14 -4.0 C 13 1-14.7 R1 20.9 20.8 21.5 21.1 22.0 20.1 14 -1.7 C 13 1-14.7 R1 20.9 28.6 23.1 22.6 23.0 22.6 23.0 L 14 0-158 | vation number | Subject | temper ature | Digit | At beginning of immersion period | At end of immersion period | Beginning of immersion period | End of immersion period | forearm and beginning of rise in temperature | Beginning of immersion period | End of immersion period |
| L 89-118 R1 204 194 154 169 Norise G 137-150 R1 204 194 154 169 Norise G 137-150 R1 205 333 190 195 12 -08 G 137-150 R1 205 306 208 214 16 -48 L1 186 337 187 187 184 -48 R1 234 333 215 211 22 14 -48 R3 229 338 215 211 22 14 -48 -48 R3 229 333 215 215 211 22 24 -15 R3 229 234 203 226 236 30 -24 -17 R1 1204 336 212 226 237 15 -24 L 140-15 R1 228 | | | U | 11. | 18.5 | 31 1 | 5 | 5 | minutes 24 | J O | C +117 |
| G 137-150 R1 205 323 190 195 112 -08 G 139-15 2 R1 205 306 208 214 16 G 139-15 2 R1 234 333 215 114 -48 G 131-147 R3 229 328 215 211 22 L 140-158 R3 228 336 212 225 30 L 120-138 R3 228 299 244 258 99 L 120-138 R3 216 234 243 247 200 C 13 1 194 336 212 225 20 20 -24 R3 228 239 244 258 99 Average -23 | A2 | 7 | 8 9-11 8 | R | 20.4 | 19.4 | 15.4 | 169 | No rise | | |
| G 139-15 2 R1 205 306 208 214 16 | : | , | | EE | 197 | 33 9 | 19.0 | | 12 | -0.8 | +33 |
| G 139-152 R1 186 337 187 182 144 -48 R3 229 308 215 211 22 R3 229 308 215 211 22 R3 229 308 215 211 22 R3 209 286 201 144 -15 R3 204 243 203 226 304 L 140-158 R1 228 312 226 237 15 -19 L 120-138 R1 228 336 212 225 20 -17 R3 218 243 244 247 236 -17 R4 218 243 244 247 20 R5 218 226 234 247 20 R6 218 226 234 247 20 R7 218 226 234 247 20 R8 218 225 225 20 -17 R9 216 236 234 247 20 R9 Average -23 | V) | و | 13 7-15 0 | E. | | 306 | 20.8 | 21.4 | 16 | | |
| G 13 I-147 R1 234 333 215 211 22 22 | , | ţ | | 112 | 18 6 18 9 | 33.7 | 187 | 18 2 | 14 | -48 | +04 +19 |
| G 131-147 R1 209 286 201 144 -15 +6 R3 204 243 203 226 30 L1 209 315 206 237 15 -19 +11 L 140-158 R1 228 312 226 237 15 -19 +11 L 120-138 R1 228 329 244 258 9 L1 120-138 R1 218 243 247 247 20 R3 216 234 247 247 258 30 -17 +9 R3 216 234 247 247 258 30 -17 +9 Average -23 +4 50 -13 +19 R3 216 234 243 247 247 20 Average -23 +45 | CV | 5 | 7 51-6 61 | RE | 23 4 22 9 | 33 3 30 8 | | 21 1 | 14 | | |
| L 140-158 R1 209 286 226 30 224 +11 L 140-158 R1 228 312 226 237 7 7 -24 +11 L 120-138 R1 228 312 226 237 15 -19 +11 L 120-138 R1 218 243 247 247 28 | 94 | (| : | 12 | 19 4 18 7 | 33 3 31 1 | 19 0 | 20 1 | 14 14 | | +47 +68 |
| L 140-158 R1 228 312 226 237 15 -24 +11 | 2 | 5 | / #I-I ct | R | 20 9 20 4 | 28 6 24 3 | 203 | 22 6 | 24 30 | | |
| L 120-138 R1 228 312 244 258 9 | *00.4 | | 3 | 122 | 20 4 20 9 | 33 0 31 5 | | | 15 | -24 -19 | +18 |
| L 120-138 R1 218 243 247 247 47 49 450 450 450 450 450 450 450 450 450 450 | 0747 | 1 | 14 U-I3 8 | R3 | 22 8 22 8 | 31.2 29.9 | 24.4 | 25.8 | 6 | | |
| R3 216 234 247 18 24 7 50 +5 14 | A 2.2.4 | - | | 1121 | 19.4 19.9 | 33 6 32 6 | | 22 5 | 8 20 | -24 -17 | +93 |
| -23 +5 | CTU | , | 12 U-13 0 | 22 | 21 8 21 6 | 24 3 23 6 | 23 4 | 24.7 | 18 | | |
| | | | | | | | | | Average | -23 | +51 |



The difference between the control and experimental observations can be summarized in the form of averages Without suction and pressure the left extremity, originally cooler, began to show a vasodilator response 20 minutes after the forearm was immersed while the right, being warmer, began to show the vasodilator response in 15 minutes The left extremity, originally 11° C cooler than the right, remained cooler by 18° C even at the height of vasodilatation. On the contrary, when suction and pressure were applied to the left lower extremity the vasodilator response appeared first in the cooler (left) extremity 15 minutes after the forearm was immersed, and in the warmer (right) extremity 20 minutes after the forearm was immersed in warm water. Moreover, while the left lower extremity was cooler than the right by 23° C at the beginning of the immersion period it became warmer than the right by 51° C at the end of the immersion period when suction and pressure were used. Suction and pressure therefore reversed the findings observed in control experiments further evidence that negative pressure favors increased blood flow control observations rule out the possibility that the differences were due to chance variations in the reactions of the two extremities

C The effects of alternate suction and pressure on skin temperature in patients with peripheral vascular disease

Five patients with varying grades of peripheral vascular disease were studied. In each patient alternate suction and pressure produced a con spicuous rise of surface temperature in the affected extremity, even in the presence of advanced organic vascular disease. In these observations the room temperature was kept between 140 and 195° C—cool enough to keep air temperature within the boxes moderately low but not so cold as to be uncomfortable. The patients were in the semi-recumbent position on a couch with a back rest. One lower extremity was placed in the aluminium box while the other was placed in the control box. As usual, the air in the latter box was kept slightly warmer than the air in the aluminum box. The patients experienced no discomfort during the procedure, even falling asleep in one instance while suction and pressure were applied. Skin and air temperatures were measured in the manner described for normal subjects.

Patient 1, a white male, aged 61, was known to have suffered from diabetes mellitus since the age of 56. His blood sugar was well controlled by diet alone. For approximately two years the patient had noticed numbness extreme coldness and moderate cyanosis of both feet without intermittent claudication or ulceration. Examination revealed generalized arteriosclerosis with a blood pressure of 155 mm. Hg systolic and 85 mm. Hg diastolic. On numerous occasions both lower extremities were found to be cold and slightly to moderately cyanotic in color. The skin of the right lower extremity from the middle of the leg downward was thickened and scaly and all the toe nails were abnormally ridged and thickened. Neither

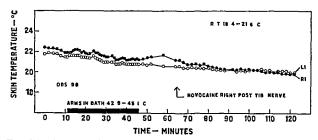


Fig 6A Showing Complete Absence of Vasodilator Response in Patient 1 during (1) Immersion of Arms in Warm Water and (2) during Anesthetization of the Right Posterior Tibial Nerve

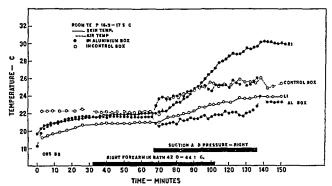


FIG 6B SHOWING RISE IN SKIN TEMPERATURE OF THE RIGHT LOWER EXTREMITY DURING APPLICATION OF SUCTION AND PRESSURE

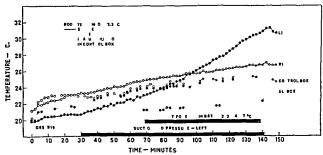


FIG 6C SHOWING RISE IN SKIN TEMPERATURE OF LEFT LOWER EXTREMITY
DURING APPLICATION OF SUCTION AND PRESSURE

TABLE 6-(Continued)

| | | | | | | | | | | | , | J | | | |
|--------------------|--|--|------------------|-------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|------------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| | : | Rise in skin temperature | c 12 3 | 57 | 28 21 | 44 36 | -0.7 -0.4 | 63 79 | 0 1 0 1 | 28 46 | -16 -06 | 27 13 | 0.8 | 12 6 12 5 | 31 23 |
| | | Amount of warming | | 7 | None | | None | , | One torearm | 7 | TAGODE TAGODE | 1 | anon | 3 | One torent |
| | Average temperature of air in boxes | End of pressure changes | υ | 24 9 | 27 0 | 22 3 | 24 6 | 25.8 | 27.0 | 25 6 | 27 5 | 22 1 | 24.3 | 219 | 24.3 |
| | Average of air | Beginning of pressure changes | | 22 9 | 25.3 | 21 6 | 24.2 | 23 5 | 24 6 | 25 1 | 26 6 | 20 8 | 22 4 | 20 0 | 22.4 |
| ontinucaj | | of suction | mınules | 56 | None | 27 | None | 118 | None | 53 | None | 51 | None | 81 | None |
| TABLE 0-(Communed) | Skin temperature | At end of period of suction and pressure | <i>C</i> 32.3 | 27 4 | 24 0 23 8 | 31.5 30.0 | 30 4 29 1 | 30 3 32 3 | 28 4 25 9 | 29 4 31 4 | 29 6 28 4 | 24 9 24 0 | 23 4 23 2 | 32 1 31 7 | 23 0 21 9 |
| | Sitempt | At beginning of period of suction and pressure | 20 0 | 217 | 21.2 | 27 1 26 4 | 31 1 29 5 | 24 0 24 4 | 24 4 24 9 | 26 6 26 8 | 31.2 29.0 | 22 2 22 7 | 22 6 23 0 | 19 5 19 2 | 199 |
| | | Digit | ₽ | R3 | 13.5 | 22.22 | 22 | 55 | 22 | R3 | ZZ | R1 R3 | LI LI | 22.23 | 33 |
| | | Room temperature | C | 0,000 | 14 9-16 0 | 9 | 15 /-18 0 | | 10 0-17 0 | 10.7 | 0 61-7 01 | 14.4–16.0 | 227-1-1-1 | 14 0-15 1 | |
| | | Obser | | 9 | 029 | | BIS | 5 | 79 | 12 | ā | 71u | | R21 | |
| | | Patient number | | | m | | -1' | , | ņ | | 3 | v | , | L. | , |

posterior tibial nerve and the right first, third and fifth digits, originally 22 1, 21 6, and 20 5° C warmed to 32 5, 32 9 and 31 7° C respectively in a room at 19 to 20° C This response indicated that the symptoms were due primarily to arterial spasm

At a room temperature of 149 to 160° C the right lower extremity was placed in the aluminium box, the left lower extremity in the control box. Suction and pressure were applied to the right lower extremity for 56 minutes. At the beginning of this period the right first and third toes were slightly cyanotic and slightly cooler than the left toes. During the period of pressure changes the right digits became definitely pink and warmer by 123 and 57° C while the left digits became warmer by 28 and 21° C, the latter being exposed in the control box to an average air temperature over 2° C higher than that in the aluminium box. The right digits exposed to suction and pressure, became conspicuously warmer than the surrounding air while the left digits originally cooler than the surrounding air remained so throughout the observation

Patient 4 (B1), a white male aged 46, was a diabetic whose right second toe had previously been amputated on account of gangrene. The tip of the right third and fourth toes had been the seat of gangrenous ulcers which healed with rest and local heat. On two occasions immersing the forearms in warm water failed to produce vasodilator response, indicating marked organic obstruction, verified in the left foot by the absence of vaso dilatation after anesthetizing the left posterior tibial nerve. This patient's history has already been summarized in another paper (3)

The right lower extremity was placed in the aluminium box, the left in the control box. The temperature of the left foot was higher than that of the right both extremities being relatively warm because the patient had been brought straight from the ward where the feet were kept constantly under a warm cradle. Suction and pressure were applied to the right lower extremity for 27 minutes and during this period the right first and third digits became 44 and 36° C warmer while the corresponding digits of the other foot became 07 and 04° C cooler respectively, though the latter were exposed to environmental temperature over 2° C higher. The right digits originally cooler than the left, became, during suction and pressure, warmer than the left

Patient 5, a white Hebrew male, aged 58, suffered from thromboanguits obliterans with coldness and cyanosis of the right foot as well as typical intermittent claudication in the right leg. The left foot became cold easily but cyanosis and pain were absent

The posterior tibial pulse was absent bilaterally, the dorsalis pedis pulse was absent on the right but present on the left. Immersing both forearms in warm water on several occasions indicated uniformly that the arteries of the right extremity were organically diseased to a conspicuous degree while those of the left extremity were less conspicuously affected. The vasomotor index of the right foot was 11, that of the left 13

observation charted in Figure 7A the left extremity was exposed to room air having a temperature of 18 8 to 20 1° C, the right lower extremity be ing placed in the aluminium box with an air temperature of approximately 24° C. Immersing one forearm in warm water was followed by a relatively rapid warming of the left first toe to 32 2° C. while the right first toe in spite of the higher temperature of the surrounding air warmed more slowly to 28 1° C. during the same period

The effects of suction and pressure on skin temperature in this patient are shown in Figure 7B. The left and more nearly normal extremity was placed in the warmer control box. The right, more diseased extremity was placed in the cooler aluminium box. Suction and pressure alone failed to change skin temperature appreciably at the relatively low room tempera ture of 14 0 to 15 1° C. The right forearm was immersed in warm water and after approximately twenty minutes the temperature of the right first toe rose above that of the left and finally reached 32 1° C. The left first toe though originally the warmer, and in a warmer environment through out the observation, remained cooler by 95° C. Four observations on this patient are summarized in Table 6. In each instance the right digits, originally cooler than the left, became warmer than the left during suction and pressure and the ordinary temperature relationship shown in Figure 7A in response to heat alone was reversed.

If all the figures in Table 6 are summarized in the form of averages it is found that the digits exposed to suction and pressure became warmer by 71°C while the control digits became warmer by 19°C although the latter were in a warmer environment. From these averages and from the individual observations it appears that applying suction and pressure increases the flow of blood to the digits even in the presence of organic arterial disease. The findings in Patients 1, 2 and 4 indicate that suction and pressure may increase blood flow though removal of vasoconstrictor tone fails to do so

D Skin color during suction and pressure

In this paper emphasis has been laid upon changes in skin temperature since they seemed theoretically to provide the most objective and convincing means of identifying changes in arterial blood flow. Skin color was also observed but drawing definite conclusions on this basis alone did not seem justifiable for several reasons. When the extremities are cold as emphasized by Lewis (6) in his studies of Raynaud's disease, cyanosis develops relatively slowly. As regards blood flow redness or cyanosis of the skin with surface temperature of 30° C. has an entirely different significance from the same grade of redness or cyanosis at a surface temperature of 20° C. Moreover, skin color depends to a certain extent, as shown by Goldschmidt and Light (7), upon the amount of blood in the skin Therefore, diminution of cyanosis was regarded as corroborative but not

and pressure to the left extremity was accompanied by a lesser cyanosis in the left first and third digits as compared to the right first and third digits

In Patient 2 immersing both forearms in warm water produced neither

In Patient 2 immersing both forearms in warm water produced neither a lessening of cyanosis nor an increase in skin temperature in the lower extremities. Negative and positive pressures caused the right first digit and the dorsum of the right foot to become definitely pink though both were cyanotic before the pump was started. An area of skin over the first metatarso phalangeal joint though deeply cyanotic before the application of suction and pressure was normal in color at the end of the observation, while the corresponding area in the left foot was still cyanotic

In Patient 3 the right first digit, moderately cyanotic before the application of suction and pressure, was definitely pinker at the end of the observation In Patient 4 no color observations could be made due to unsatisfactory light

In Patient 5 the skin color of the right digits, originally moderately cymotic, changed but little when vasoconstrictor tone was reduced by immersing both forearms in warm water. In four observations (B2, B7, B17 and B21) the color of the right digits became brighter, changing from a moderate or marked cyanotic tint before suction and pressure to a normal tint or at most a slightly cyanotic tint at the end of the suction and pressure period

The observations on skin color corroborated the more objective and definite skin temperature studies both indicating an increased blood flow during the application of alternate suction and pressure

DISCUSSION

The desirability of increasing local blood supply in certain medical and surgical conditions involving the extremities has long been recognized As an early attempt in this direction the application of a bandage proximal to the lesion was, according to Bier (8), first described by Pare (9) This method was later used chiefly for treating ununited fractures by Nicoladoni (10), Thomas (11), and Helferich (12) but has been more recently revived and extended by Bier (8) While such passive congestion produces venous engorgement and increases the amount of blood trapped in the vessels distal to the bandage it does not increase, but really reduces total blood flow if congestion is extreme, as shown by the calorimetric measurements of Stewart (13)

Negative pressure was apparently first extensively used in 1829 by Junod (14) who constructed a series of pneumatic chambers' designed to accommodate one or more extremities or even most of the body. Under the name of 'hemospasie" negative pressure was used enthusiastically to treat almost every form of local or systemic disease. Junod used negative pressures amounting to between ½ and ½ atmosphere over more or local or systemic disease.

tightness of the skin when vasoconstrictor tone was reduced by warming the foreums. When vasodilatation was not extreme 25 seconds of negative pressure produced little sensation of distention. In all of the observations on normal subjects and patients discomfort has been negligible and no hemorrhages into the skin have been observed. A negative pressure of 120 mm. Hg would undoubtedly produce cutaneous hemorrhages if it were permitted to act for a long time. However, during periods of 25 seconds the veins and capillaries are not maximally distended and consequently the vessel walls are not stretched to a point where hemorrhages are upt to occur. Moreover, in patients with organic arterial obstruction distention would occur at a later period than in normal subjects whose arteries are still of normal calibre.

The cuff congests the leg slightly and in itself tends to keep the veins distended. Hence brief periods of pressure were used to empty the peripheral vessels and to provide an adequate reservoir for the accommodation of the blood drawn in by the succeeding period of suction, in essential point theoretically in favoring an increase in the rate at which arterial blood enters the capillaries and veins. Simple intermittent suction with rest periods would probably be less efficient since (a) the congestion produced by the cuff would not be overcome and (b) emptying would be slow and incomplete. The importance of diminishing vasoconstrictor tone has already been considered

Inspection of the tables will show that occasionally skin temperatures were lower than the temperature of the air in the boxes. At the outset the air in the boxes had the same temperature as room air. As soon as the boxes were closed the air surrounding the extremities began to warm presumably due to radiation from the warmer proximal portions of the extremity enclosed within the boxes. Nevertheless, the temperature of the digits exposed to suction and pressure rose well above environmental temperature.

The possibility that the rise in skin temperature was due purely to physical forces incident to changing air pressure can be ruled out by inspection of Figures 4A, 4B, 6C, and 7B. If the elevation of skin temperature had been due to condensation of moisture or to heat produced during compression of the air within the box the skin temperature would have begun to rise in every instance as soon as the pressure variations were used. In these four observations as well as many others skin temperature did not change, in spite of suction and pressure, until vasoconstrictor tone was diminished. Moreover, such physical effects could not explain the elevation of skin temperature above the environmental temperature. A bottle covered with moist gauze the latter to simulate moist skin, cooled slightly in the aluminium box during the prolonged application of positive and negative pressure. These observations are believed to rule out artefacts due to purely physical factors.

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D C, MAY 8, 1933

Treatment of Pellagra with Liver Extracts By David T Smith and (by invitation) Julian M Ruffin, Durham N C

During the past two years a series of pellagra patients have been studied at the Duke Hospital. A basic diet was planned which contained all the normal necessary vitamins and minerals except vitamin B2 or G. The patients main tained on this diet failed to make satisfactory improvement until vitamin G in the form of liver extract was added to the diet. It has been demonstrated that the symmetrical skin lesions in pellagra are due to symmetrical exposure to sunlight and have no relation to nerve lesions in the spinal cord. Unilateral skin lesions could be produced at will by proper exposure to sunlight. Experimental black tongue in dogs has been produced with the same diet used as a basic diet for the clinical studies. This experimental black tongue can be cured by liver extracts.

The Urinary Exerction of Iodine By George M Curtis and (by invitation) Francis J Phillips, Columbus, Ohio

The urinary excretion of iodine by hospital patients without thyroid disease in this region is from 25 to 75 microgrammes daily. No iodized salt is used in the hospital diet. It is within normal range in patients with non toxic nodular goiter and also in those with non toxic diffuse colloid goiter. In patients with diffuse hyperplastic goiter with exophthalmos and with severe hyperthyroidism, it is greatly increased during the early exacerbation of severe, untreated toxicity. The urinary excretion of iodine increases greatly immediately following thyroidectomy. This increase is temporary. When iodine is quantitatively administered to patients with diffuse hyperplastic goiter with hyperthyroidism, the urinary excretion is at first low. There ensues a rising iodine excretion curve as clinical improvement follows. The urinary excretion of iodine is increased during early menstruation. This is correlated with the associated rise in the blood iodine.

Congenital Heart Block Review with Report of Detailed Histo Pathologic Study of the Second Case of Complete Congenital Heart Block Studied by Serial Sections Through the Conduction System By Wallace M YATER and (by invitation) James A Lyon and Paul E McNadb Washington D C

Cases of congenital heart block are not common About forty cases have been reported in the literature which fulfill certain arbitrary criteria for the making of this diagnosis. The cause has usually been patent interventricular septum with anatomical break in the accompany findings of only four cases have been to heart only two were studied by serial sections through the conduction was a case of 2 to 1 heart block in which there was almost of the interventricular septum the other was a case studied by Yater

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heart block in which there were very unusual anomalies but in which a septal defect did not play a rôle. The case now reported is one of an infant who had a defect in the interventricular septum in its middle upper portion. There was found a complete interruption of the bundle of His by the defect. In fact, practically the whole bundle was missing. The electrocardiogram, however, showed the QRS complex to be of the supraventricular type. The diagnosis of complete heart block due to patent interventricular septum was made during life.

Significance of Inorganic Sulphate Coefficient or Clearance in Renal Disease
By John W Mack (by invitation) and Norman M Keith, Rochester,
Minn

Inorganic sulphate concentration was determined in blood serum and urine during a given period of urine excretion. The coefficient or clearance was determined by the following formula

Per cent sulphate concentration in urine
Per cent sulphate concentration in blood serum

minute volume of urine

In twelve normal individuals the sulphate coefficient or clearance was very constant from hour to hour, the variation being less than in the corresponding urea and creatinine coefficients. This fact suggests that the inorganic sulphate coefficient might be useful as a standard with which the coefficient of other substances might be satisfactorily compared.

In renal disease the sulphate coefficient is in general lowered in proportion to the degree of insufficiency. In some cases of this series, the sulphate coefficient appears to be decreased when other functional tests, including urea clearance, are within normal range. This suggests that the sulphate coefficient or clearance may have an important place in those cases in which early renal insufficiency is suspected.

The Effect of Gelatin Diets in Nephritis By G P Grabfield, Boston, Mass Previous studies of nephritis have indicated that there is some alteration in patients with Bright's disease in their handling of sulphur, more especially in relation to the nitrogen Therefore, in the present study it was decided to try the effect of sulphur-poor diets on patients with Bright's disease. The problem of providing adequate amounts of nitrogen without sulphur was solved by using gelatin as the source of practically all the dietary nitrogen. In practice, standard nephritic diets were used, patients were studied for three-day periods and during the test period, practically all the protein of the diet was given to the patient in the form of gelatin in the same amount as the previous protein of the diet. These diets were difficult to take and the only cases reported are those which succeeded in eating all the diet.

Unfortunately, few control experiments of this type are recorded in the literature but those that are, indicate that gelatin is an incomplete protein and is only partly utilized. The degree of utilization varies and the estimates are that from 11 to 40 per cent must be made up by the breakdown of body protein. The interesting thing about the figures as shown, is that if we take the sulphur as an index of the amount of nitrogen metabolized, it remains essentially the same during the gelatin periods as previously. As these diets were adequate except for the protein and sulphur, it seems to us that this may be taken as an indication that there is an alteration in the utilization of sulphur in these patients with Bright's disease. In other words, these figures indicate that the

amount of the sulphur rich moiety of the protein molecule that is metabolized in such patients is only partly dependent upon the diet

The Effects of Posture (Standing) on the Serum Protein Concentration and Colloid Osmotic Pressure of Blood from the Foot in Relation to the Formation of Edema By John B Youmans and (by invitation) H S Wells Dorothy Donley, and D G Miller, Nashville, Tenn

The influence of posture on the serum proteins and osmotic pressure of blood in the foot was studied with reference to formation of edema, particu larly in persons with slightly lowered serum proteins. Others have shown a general concentration of blood in the erect posture, apparently due to loss of fluid from the vessels in the dependent tissues but protein concentration and osmotic pressure of blood from the foot have not been determined subjects after standing approximately an hour showed a 17 to 40 per cent concentration of proteins and a 24 to 64 per cent increase in osmotic pressure in blood from the foot. In all cases the rise in osmotic pressure was relatively greater than the concentration of protein Concentration was much greater in the foot than in the arm. The escape of fluid was indirectly indicated by an increase in leg volume but pitting edema was absent in most normals. Patients with edema showed an increase in proteins of 14 to 33 per cent and in osmotic pressure of 23 to 46 per cent but the average increases were less than in normals while the increase in leg volume was greater and the edema was demon strably increased

4 Study of the Nasal Secretions in Disease of the Upper Respiratory Tract
By Perrin H Long and (by invitation) Eleanor A Bliss and Harriet
M Carpenter. Baltimore. Md

Studies of the nasal secretions during "colds" have shown that in the early hours of a "cold' many epithelial and mononuclear cells are found. By the third day the cellular content of the nasal secretions is chiefly made up of poly morphonuclear leukocytes. In many instances stained slide preparations of the nasal secretions late in 'colds' failed to show appreciable numbers of bacteria. It is suggested that the cellular reaction of the nasal secretions in colds' is a response to the infecting filterable agent rather than to the bacterial flora of the nasal passages.

Contraction of the Spleen in a Case of Anemia with Splenomegaly

MILLER (introduced by C P Rhoads) New York City, N Y

Contraction of the spleen was studied during the intravenous injection of liver extract in a patient with anemia and splenomegaly. This afforded an opportunity to ascertain facts regarding the function of the human spleen as a reservoir of red and white corpuscles and blood platelets.

The spleen was visualized by x ray its area was measured before and after the injection of liver extract. The contraction occurred during the injection, which was given over a period of twenty minutes. The spleen regained its original size after one half to six hours.

In a typical study the surface area of the spleen as measured from the crays with a Keuffel and Esser planimeter was 90 3 sq cm before the injection Immediately after the injection the surface area was 32 3 sq cm Twenty four hours later the area was 89 1 sq cm Accompanying this contraction there was an increase in the red cell count of 15 1 per cent. The hemoglobin increased 21 5 per cent, and the white cell count 54 0 per cent. An

increase in the number of blood platelets of 120 per cent occurred The fragility of the red cells to sodium chloride solution was not altered

Blood volume determinations by the vital red method of Rowntree showed no appreciable alteration. There was a decrease in the plasma percentage of 77 per cent.

From data of this nature it has been possible to estimate the relative cellular composition of the blood given off from the splenic reservoir into the general circulation as a result of induced and observed contractions of the spleen

The Nature of the Muscular Weakness in Graves' Disease By E Shorr, H B Richardson and H G Wolff, New York City, N Y

Muscular weakness is a common symptom in Graves' disease. In such patients a very constant abnormality is the presence of excessive amounts of creatin in the urine. Creatin in muscle has been shown to be combined with phosphoric acid as a labile compound, phosphocreatin (Fiske and Subbarow), now considered to be of primary significance for muscular contraction. From experiments on certain pathological states, it appears probable that glycin is an important precursor of creatin. This amino-acid is readily synthesized in the body, chiefly in the liver

Recently, considerable information has been obtained concerning the relation between the muscular weakness and the disturbance of creatin metabolism in progressive muscular dystrophy. Since the muscular weakness in Graves' disease is often very great, and a creatinuria is common to both conditions, the creatin metabolism of patients with Graves' disease was investigated. Several analogies between the two syndromes were revealed. Thus, in both (1) the ability to retain ingested creatin (presumably as phosphocreatin) was markedly diminished, (2) the ingestion of glycin resulted in large increases in creatin elimination, frequently greater in Graves' disease than in advanced cases of progressive muscular dystrophy. In some instances the rise was transitory, falling to lower levels or disappearing with continued glycin feeding, (3) the ability to form glycin, as measured by hippuric acid excretion after the administration of sodium benzoate, was unimpaired. Furthermore, following ingestion of sodium benzoate, there was frequently observed a sharp increase in the creatin output, the significance of which is yet unknown.

An additional point of resemblance was furnished by the observation that long-standing cases of Graves' disease showed anatomical changes in the skeletal muscle similar in many respects to those found in progressive muscular dystrophy (Askanazy)

Following the administration of iodine to patients with Graves' disease, as was previously observed (Palmer et al), there was a progressive fall in creatinuria to the normal level, usually accompanied by a fall in the basal metabolism. During the latter phase, we gave creatin and glycin again, but now no increase in creatin output resulted. This is analogous to what occurs in progressive muscular dystrophy after prolonged feeding of glycin. Additional ingestion of glycin and creatin then produces no increase in creatin output (Thomas, Milhorat and Techner).

The factors causing these disturbances of creatin metabolism in Graves' disease are still obscure. It is postulated that the processes maintaining the integrity of the phosphocreatin mechanism are taxed too severely by the persistently high metabolism. One of these, the endogenous formation of glycin, was found to be normal. However, though adequate in proportion to the body weight and the normal basal metabolism, its production may be low in proportion.

to the needs of an elevated total metabolism. The increased demands resulting from the latter may lead to a progressive depletion of the elements involved in the phosphocreatin system. Whether iodine acts directly on this muscle mechanism in addition to reducing the basal metabolism, cannot be stated.

Conclusion The muscular weakness in Graves' disease is the result of a reparable impairment of the phosphocreatin mechanism, and is of the nature of an acute muscular dystrophy similar in many respects to the disturbance in progressive muscular dystrophy

The Effect of Consulsant Drugs on the Cerebral Vessels By Stanley Cobb and (by invitation) Jacob E Finesinger Boston, Mass

This paper is a report of microscopical observations through a window in the skull of the small arteries of the pia, and of their reactions after the administration of convulsant drugs to the animal under observation. The drugs used were caffeine wormwood oil homocamfin camphor monobromate and picrotoxin. The intravenous introduction of large doses of caffeine produced an acute constriction of the pial arteries followed by a generalized convulsion Small doses of wormwood oil gave a slight constriction of the pial artery followed by a generalized convulsion large doses of wormwood oil produced a dilatation of the pial arteries before the onset of the generalized convulsion. Homocamfin and picrotoxin produced a slight constriction of the pial artery preceding the convulsion. Camphor monobromate gave a dilatation of the pial arteries preceding the convulsion. These experimental convulsions were not preceded by a consistent type of vascular response to the drugs used.

The Nonprotein Iron of the Blood By J F McIntosh Peiping China

Relatively little attention has been paid to that part of the iron of the blood which is not contained in the hemoglobin molecule. Most investigators have considered it as negligible. Scarcely any determinations of it have been made in clinical cases.

The nonprotein iron of whole blood has been determined directly by analysis of the trichloracetic acid filtrate. In normals, the average value found was 102 mgm per 100 cc. A variety of anemic cases were studied, including pernicious anemia achlorhydric hypochromic anemia and secondary anemias due to hemorrhage cancer and various infections. In these, the nonprotein iron was reduced in proportion to the degree of anemia. The different diseases do not show any grouping which deserves emphasis.

The greater part of the nonprotein iron is to be found in the red cells

The Case of Captain Charles Martell What It Has Taught Us About Generalised Osteitis Fibrosa Cystica By Walter Bauer and (by invitation) Charles L Short, Boston Mass

The diagnosis of generalized osteitis fibrosh cystica was first made in this country by DuBois in 1926. Through the kindness and generosity of Dr. Du Bois we have been privileged to study this patient, Captain Charles Martell, at various times during the ensuing six years. Because of his courage interest in clinical investigation and desire to live as well as to help others live he permitted detailed clinical and metabolic studies on numerous occasions submitted to eight operations and asked that a complete necropsy be done at the time of his death.

A detailed review of these studies reveals not only the clinical and metabolic course of generalized osteitis fibrosa cystica, its complications, the metabolic changes resulting from these complications, but also demonstrates the difficulty that may be encountered in finding the offending parathyroid tumor in this disease, as well as the pathological changes resulting from hyperparathyroidism of fifteen years duration

The Conversion of Glycerol to Glucose by the Animal Organism By F H LASHMET (by invitation) and L H Newburgh, Ann Arbor, Mich

In its metabolism, 10 per cent of fat is converted to glycerol. On the basis that 100 per cent of glycerol is converted to glucose, it has been customary to consider 10 per cent of the fat of the diabetic diet as available glucose

The data, upon which the conclusion is based that glycerol is completely converted to glucose, are very unconvincing, even as originally presented, and especially so when recalculated

Our investigation, employing more recent methods than were available to older observers, seems to show that less than 30 per cent of glycerol is converted to glucose. If our work is substantiated, it is evident that only 2 or 3 per cent of fat is converted to glucose.

Studies on the Origin of Plasma Proteins By Hobart A Reimann and (by invitation) Grace Medes and Luther C Fisher, Minneapolis, Minn

Previous experiments indicated that an increase of blood viscosity due to increase of globulin and fibrinogen caused enhancement of the agglutination of bacteria. Studies were then made to locate the source of these proteins which appear to be associated with the immune defense mechanism. There are four theoretical sources of fibrinogen (a) liver, (b) erythrocytes, (c) bone marrow, (d) leukocytes. Considerable presumptive evidence favors the latter two, especially the leukocytes.

Leukocvtes were obtained by injecting aleuronat or gum acacia into the pleural cavities of rabbits. The cells were disintegrated by freezing with liquid air and triturating in a mortar. The resulting viscid mass was redissolved in salt solution, dialyzed and fractionated with sodium sulfate. Proteins with the salting-out characteristics of fibrinogen, globulin and albumin were present Immunologic tests are under way to test the identity of these proteins with their counterparts in the plasma.

Heavy suspensions of leukocytes in broth were placed in cellophan capsules and embedded subcutaneously in rabbits. After 4 to 7 days the capsules were removed. The leukocytes had largely disintegrated and globulin- and fibrinogen-like proteins were detected in the broth. Leukocytes were then destroyed in vivo by benzol injections or by exposure to x-rays. In one benzol experiment the globulins and fibrinogen increased markedly as the number of circulating leukocytes fell. During the period of aplasia of the marrow, the fibrinogen diminished. Other experiments failed to give striking results. In general, the fibrinogen tended to increase, and the total protein to diminish at the expense of the albumin fraction. The marked leukopenia produced by x-rays caused but little change in the blood proteins. The fibrinogen increased somewhat immediately following the diminution of leukocytes.

These experiments indicate that globulin and fibrinogen may in part be derived from the decomposition of the leukocytic cells, especially of the polymorphonuclear type in the circulation or in the hematopoietic system

Allergy and Immunity in Tuberculosis By Jonas S Friedenwald and (by invitation) Herbert Rothschild and Clarence Bernstein, Baltimore, Md

A group of guinea pigs was made immune to tuberculosis and allergic to tuberculin by inoculation with a virulent strain of tubercle bacilli. When al lergy had been well established one half of the animals were desensitized by daily subcutaneous injections of Koch's OT in increasing doses. When allergy had been completely suppressed, the desensitized animals together with the allergic animals and a group of normal controls were inoculated in the groin, in the eye and in the skin with a virulent strain of tubercle bacilli. The injections of tuberculin in desensitized doses were continued duly. The results showed that the loss of allergy by desensitization was not accompanied by any loss of immunity.

Heterologous Scarlet Fever By James D Trash and Francis G Blake, New Haven Conn

Two cases of scarlet fever which failed to respond to large doses of therapeutic scarlet fever antitoxin were found to have a heterologous toxin in their blood. The blood serum from these patients collected during the active stage of the disease elicited strongly positive skin reactions in certain Dick negative test subjects and no reaction in Dick positive subjects. In vitro, the serum was neutralized by the blood serum of the Dick positive individuals but not by that of the Dick negative individuals.

A toxin was prepared from the hemolytic streptococci isolated from the two patients. Both in the reactions it elicited on intracutaneous injection and by the results of neutralization tests it corresponded with the toxin in the blood samples mentioned above.

Accordingly, the above results taken in conjunction with our previous studies show that heterogenicity exists among the toxins found in the blood during scarlet fever and among the antitoxins found in the blood serum of normal individuals

Electrocardiograms that Record the Potential Variations Produced by the Heart
Beat at a Single Point By Paul S Barker Frank N Wilson and
(by invitation) Franklin D Johnston, Ann Arbor, Mich

A method has been devised which makes it possible to record the potential variations produced by the heart beat at a single point. This method has been used to explore the electric field produced by the heart at the body surface in bundle branch block ventricular hypertrophy coronary occlusion and other cardiac conditions. By this means, it is possible to compare the potential variations that occur at points near the heart with the potential variations of the extremities. In general, it is found that the potential variations of a given extremity are similar to those that occur on those surfaces of the heart that face toward the attachment of that extremity. In the common type of bundle branch block and in left ventricular enlargement the potential variations of the left arm are similar to those that occur over those portions of the precordium that overhe the left ventricle, the potentials of the left leg are similar to those that occur over those portions of the precordium that overhe the right ventricle. Characteristic curves are obtained from the precordium when the anterior surface of the heart is infarcted.

The Effect of Vagus and Sympathetic Stimulation on the Coronary Flow in Revised Human Hearts By William B Kountz (introduced by David P Barr), St Louis, Mo

Human hearts have been revived in the body by perfusion. The hearts were perfused through an aortic cannula until they began to beat strongly Cannulae were then inserted into the right coronary artery and into the circumflex branch of the left coronary artery. These were then connected to a reservoir of perfusion fluid, the height of which could be regulated so as to obtain any desired pressure. In some experiments another reservoir containing Locke's solution free of calcium or with excess of calcium was arranged in the perfusion circuit. The flow of fluid from the reservoirs was measured by a volumetric recorder.

When the coronary vessels were perfused with buffered Locke's solution containing at least 15 per cent blood, stimulation of the peripheral end of the vagus nerve slowed the heart rate and increased the coronary flow. Stimulation of the sympathetic produced exactly opposite effects under the same circumstances.

Further analysis was made by stopping the heart through removal of calcium from the perfusing solution or through the addition of an excess of calcium. In some experiments changes in the pH of the perfusion fluid in the range from 70 to 78 were made.

It was found that when hearts were stopped by removal of calcium or by reducing the pH of the perfusion fluid to about 70 vagus stimulation had no influence on the coronary flow. Sympathetic stimulation on the other hand increased the flow. When the hearts were stopped by an excess of calcium or by increasing the pH to about 78 vagus stimulation increased the coronary flow, while sympathetic stimulation had no influence upon it

In the beating heart the mechanical factor of change in heart rate makes it difficult to evaluate the effect of the sympathetic and vagus activity on the heart. It is suggested that changes in the coronary flow in the arrested hearts may be due to change in tone.

Further Observations on the Use of Chest Leads in the Electrocardiographic Study of Coronary Occlusion By Charles C Wolferth and (by invitation) Samuel Bellet, Thomas M McMillan, and Francis Clark Wood, Philadelphia, Pa

Fifty-seven cases of acute coronary occlusion and 280 controls, both normal and pathological, were studied with chest leads and limb leads. The following facts developed

- 1 Twenty-three of our fifty-seven cases of acute coronary occlusion showed signs of recent cardiac infarction in an anteroposterior chest lead (Lead IV) and not in limb leads, at some time during their course
- 2 Three types of left ventricular infarction have been seen at necropsy the anterior (5 cases), the posterior (1 case) and the lateral (1 case) Lead IV helps to differentiate these types electrocardiographically. In our series of 57, 33 were anterior, 18 were posterior, 5 were probably lateral, and 1 was not classified.
- 3 Huge upright T-waves in Lead IV probably signify acute or subacute anterior infarction
- 4 The advantage of Lead IV over limb leads is seen mainly in the study of cases of anterior infarction. Twenty-one of thirty-three acute anterior cases, at some time during their course, showed diagnostic findings in Lead IV and not

in limb leads Moreover, Lead IV sometimes helps to differentiate T-1 inversions produced by healed anterior infarction from those due to other causes

- 5 In our cases the pain of anterior infarction has usually been situated lower in the chest than the pain of posterior infarction
- 6 Anterior infarction seems to have a less favorable prognosis for life and for adequate recovery than posterior infarction
- 7 A standard normal electrocardiogram in the anteroposterior chest lead is as readily obtainable as a standard in limb leads
- 8 S-T interval deviations caused by conditions other than acute coronary occlusion are if anything less confusing when chest leads are used with limb leads. They rarely resemble the typical electrocardiographic picture of either of the two common types of coronary occlusion.

Bone Lesions in Yaws By Thomas B Turner and (by invitation) George M Saunders Baltimore Md

Approximately 10 per cent of 1100 yaws patients studied in Jamaica exhibited lesions of the bones, although among individuals infected less than five years the incidence was 14 per cent. The characteristic lesion as revealed by roentgen ray consists of multiple small areas of rarefaction in the cortex with or without periosteal proliferation rarely periostitis occurs alone. Often there is new bone formation about the areas of rarefaction giving rise to clinically recognizable enlargement and deformity of the bone. The long bones are chiefly affected. The onset of typical lesions has been observed as early as one month and as late as fifteen years after infection with yaws. Persistent dull pun is the most prominent symptom and active lesions may persist for several years eventually healing spontaneously or extending to involve the overlying soft parts with subsequent development of chronic ulcers. If not too far advanced there is prompt response to anti-yaws treatment. Photographs of the clinical and roentgenological appearance of typical bone lesions were shown

Preliminary Report on the Treatment of Chronic and Subacute Infectious Arthritis by Artificial Fever By Lawrence A Kohn and (by invitation) Stafford L Warren Rochester, N Y

Forty three patients in the main with purely atrophic, proliferative, and some mixed types (infectious and degenerative arthritis), in various stages of dis ability deformity, and chronicity (six months to fourteen years) have been subjected to one or two treatments of artificial fever. No cases of gonorrheal origin or purely degenerative arthritis have been included. Twenty one patients were treated in 1931 of these five have not returned in 1933 (one was not improved and the rest were improved when last heard from after 1 to 14 months). Twenty two patients were treated in 1932 (of these two have not returned and one was unimproved one month later and has been lost sight of). The results have been quite consistent in thirty five patients, in all but two of whom pain has rapidly diminished and mobility of joints has increased a steady improvement in the condition of the patient a gain in weight (2 to 17 kgm.), and disappearance of pallor have occurred in the following four to say months.

Relapses have occurred at the end of 12, 20 and 24 months respectively in three patients in whom another treatment has been successful in giving relief Eight incapacitated patients have been able to earn a living

Antibody Response to Pneumococcic Infections By Manwell Finland and Alexander W Winkler (introduced by Chester S Keefer), Boston, Mass

One hundred and fifty-eight patients from whom pneumococci of various types (Cooper) other than Type I were isolated were studied with reference to the formation of antibodies. Of these, 110 were patients with pneumonia and the remainder had other acute or chronic respiratory infections. Tests for serum agglutinins were carried out before and after crisis by the use of antigens prepared from a variety of type-specific pneumococci. Each serum was tested with one or more antigens of the type homologous with that recovered from the patient and, in addition, against a number of antigens of heterologous types. In the case of Types II, III, V and VIII protection tests were also carried out.

The results showed that agglutinin formation can be demonstrated in the course of pneumonia and occasionally of other infections associated with the finding of some of the new types of pneumococci. The specificity of the anti-body response is similar to that commonly observed in infections with Type I pneumococci. In particular, homologous type-specific antibodies were demonstrated in patients from whom the following types were obtained. Types II, III, V, VII, VIII, IX, XII, XIV, XVII, XVIII and XIX. Among the patients with Types II and V (IIa, Avery) pneumococci, homologous type-specific antibodies were found for each type, with only occasional development of heterologous antibodies as demonstrated by mouse protection tests. With Types III and VIII (atypical III, Sugg and Harris) a similar specificity in the production of antibodies occurred, but, in addition, there was some production of Type III antibodies in pneumonias associated with Type VIII pneumococci and vice versa.

The findings, in general, tend to confirm the biological identity of the newly classified types and point toward their etiological relationship to human disease

Digestion Efficiency in Simple Undernutration By J M Strang and H B McClugage (by invitation) and Frank A Evans, Pittsburgh, Pa

Nine undernourished patients increased their diets to a daily average of 3475 calories on which they gained an average of 73 kgm in 56 weeks. The average weight of the food was 1926 grams per day. The average daily weight of the stool was 165 grams or 85 per cent of the food intake. This ratio varied according to the water content of food and stool. The food solids bore a fairly constant relation to the stool solids from week to week. The average weight of the food solids was 549 grams, of the stool solids, 31 grams. This represents a digestion and absorption efficiency of 94 per cent. The nitrogen in the stools averaged 13 gram per day, or 12 per cent of the food nitrogen.

These studies indicate an ability on the part of patients with uncomplicated undernutrition to digest and absorb sufficient food to gain rapidly

Congenital Heart Disease Complicating Pregnancy A Report of Sixteen Cases
By Burton E Hamilton (by invitation) and Robert Sterling Palmer,
Boston, Mass

Congenital heart disease is not a common complication of pregnancy. At the Boston Lying-in Hospital in over 500 cases of organic heart disease, congenital heart disease comprises less than three per cent. It is found as a complication of pregnancy once in 3000 patients. This very rarity, plus the fact that the striking physical signs of congenital heart disease sometimes impress

the first observer unduly and lead him to make an unnecessarily grave prognosis and finally a practical clinical lesson which we have drawn from our experience, has prompted us to make this report. We are presenting in addition to our sixteen cases the scattered reports of fifteen cases encountered in the literature

We feel justified in drawing the following conclusions

1 Coarctation of the aorta is to be considered in any case of unexplained persistent hypertension. The prognosis for the mother when this condition complicates pregnancy is probably good. The fetus may die in utero, possibly due to diminished circulation to the lower half of the body.

2 Congenital complete heart block is not a serious complication of preg-

nancy

3 Patent ductus arteriosus is compatible with successful childbearing, only one in eleven cases having symptoms which could be considered at all serious. We suspect that the same may be said of intraventricular septal defect if operative delivery and obstetrical manipulations in themselves likely to induce shock can be anticipated and avoided. The danger probably lies in a reversal of the left right to a right left shunt brought about by a fall in systemic pressure

4 Experience with six pregnancies in one patient with preexisting right left shunt suggests that operative delivery or obstetrical procedures likely to induce hemorrhage or shock may cause a serious and alarming exacerbation of this shunt. However, compensatory mechanisms already present may make

the danger less formidable in these cases

Do the Thebesian Vessels Play Any Role in Supplying Blood to the Heart?

By L N Katz and (by invitation) Kenneth Jochim and Anne Bohn
ing Chicago, Ill

Wearn's contention of the auxiliary role of the Thebesian vessels has recently been questioned. We have reinvestigated the problem, using a system by which the cannulated coronary arteries and coronary sinus form a circuit distinct from the cardiac chambers and great vessels, the only communication possible between the two circuits is by way of the Thebesian vessels. Bismuth injected into the cardiac circuit appeared in the coronary circuit as evidenced by chemical analysis of the coronary sinus blood. Bacteria injected into the coronary circuit also appeared in the coronary sinus blood and were found his tologically in the capillaries and coronary vessels. The Thebesian vessels can therefore carry blood from the heart chambers into the coronary circuit but the amount carried is still undetermined.

The Calorigenic Action of Thyroglobulin and its Constituents By J Lerman and W T Salter Boston, Mass

It has previously been shown by us that thyroxin polypeptide is as active when given by mouth as when given parenterally, and that its activity is proportional to its iodine content when compared with crystalline thyroxin. Using the metabolic response of untreated myxedema patients to thyroxin polypeptide given in dosage of one milligram by mouth daily as a standard we find in three assays of whole thyroid gland with an equivalent thyroxin content and in four assays of whole thyroid gland with an equivalent total organic iodine content that the calorigenic action of whole thyroid gland depends upon its total organic and not upon its thyroxin (active) iodine content.

In another study 20 patients with treated my edema were given in succession thyroid gland preparations from different sources for periods of time sufficient to determine the maintenance level of metabolism for each 1 vi u

The results indicate that the ration of a preparation of thyroid which will maintain a definite level of metabolism in a given patient or change this level is dependent upon its total organic iodine and not its thyroxin (active) iodine content. Since diodotyrosin (the soluble iodine fraction in iodothyroglobulin) is inactive calorigenically when given alone, there remains to be explained the mechanism by which it assumes calorigenic properties when linked with other amino-acids in iodothyroglobulin

One patient with myxedema was fed thyroglobulin obtained from hyperplastic glands, two others were fed thyroglobulin obtained from colloid glands. The calorigenic response in each case was proportional to the total iodine content. Diiodotyrosin peptone, obtained by peptic digestion of thyroglobulin, was inactive in one patient, whereas thyroxin peptone obtained in this way was active in the same patient in proportion to its iodine content

The results thus far indicate that no calorigenic activity is lost in the isolation of thyroglobulin from whole thyroid gland and that diiodotyrosin loses its activity in the first stage of proteolytic digestion of thyroglobulin

The Elastic Properties of the Emphysematous Lung and Their Clinical Significance By Ronald V Christie, Montreal, Can

The elastic properties of the lung have been analysed in cases of emphysema by means of simultaneous tracings of the tidal air and interpleural pressure. With inspiration and expiration the interpleural pressure is found to fluctuate around that of the atmosphere, and an almost complete loss of the pulmonary elasticity can be demonstrated. These changes can also be shown by vital capacity tracings, the reserve air if taken alone being greater than that taken after the complemental air. The respiratory level also shows characteristic fluctuation.

The significance of these findings with regard to the increase in lung volume, and the dysphoea and orthophoea in emphysema is discussed, the paradoxical movement of the diaphragm during expiration being emphasized and explained on what is shown to be an active expiratory effort of the extrinsic muscles of respiration. To prevent this paradoxical movement a tight abdominal binder has been used in the treatment of emphysema, with encouraging signs of symptomatic relief

The relationship of the loss of elasticity to unequal ventilation of the lungs in emphysema is also discussed

The Association of Acalcification of Dentine with Hypoparathyroidism in Rats and the Cure of Same with Parathormone, with some Correlated Observations in Man By Fuller Albright and (by invitation) Moses S Strock, Boston, Mass

The first interrelationship to be demonstrated between the parathyroid glands and calcium metabolism was in 1911 by Erdheim. He showed that parathyroidectomy in the rat is followed by acalcification of that dentine which is formed subsequent to the operation. It has surprised some observers that acalcification should occur in hypoparathyroidism when decalcification is such an important part of hyperparathyroidism. The work of Erdheim has been repeated with similar results, and, with the aid of parathormone, strata of acalcified dentine followed by strata of calcified dentine have been produced at will Decalcification of the dentine was never produced. The data are in accordance with the view that metabolic processes can cause acalcification of dentine, but not decalcification. Confirmatory observations from the teeth of patients with hypo- and hyperparathyroidism are made.

Observations upon the Refractory Period of the Auricular Extrasystole in the Mammalian Heart By E Cowles Andrus and (by invitation) Paul Padget, Baltimore, Md

The Production of Inflammatory Lessons in the Hearts of Animals Allergic to Hemolytic Streptococcus By CAROLINE C BEDELL and RAWLEY M Penick (by invitation) and Benjamin M Baker. Ir. Baltimore, Md Seegal, Seegal and Jost recently produced, by the intrapericardial injection of the homologous antigen an intense inflammatory reaction in the pericardium. heart and aorta of rabbits sensitized to egg white. The present report has to do with similar observations upon animals made sensitive to a beta hemolytic Twenty eight normal rabbits received, over a period of several weeks, 01 cc of a saline suspension of living organisms into the skin. At varying intervals after the beginning of sensitization the pericardial sacs were exposed and 2 cc of vaccine prepared from the streptococcus employed were The animals were killed twenty-four hours to six days later and the hearts were examined both grossly and microscopically. Twenty five of these showed varying degrees of pericardial and myocardial inflammatory reactions somewhat similar to the changes described by Seegal, Seegal and Jost One other had extensive changes confined to the pericardium only and the other two had but slight pericardial changes Experimental lesions were compared with the spontaneous lesions of thirty one normal rabbits. Another control group was composed of twenty normal unsensitized rabbits which were subjected to the pericardial injections similar to those described above. Many of these had minimal pericardial inflammatory reactions but in all but one the heart muscles were normal

The Action of Oxygen in Counteracting the Effects of Alcohol By Alvan L Barach, New York City, N Y

The ingestion of alcohol by a subject performing a standard exercise test resulted in a marked increase in the pulse rate respiratory rate and pulmonary ventilation above the response of the same subject without alcohol. When oxygen was inhaled instead of air, there was a consistent reduction in the pulse rate, respiratory rate and pulmonary ventilation of the alcoholic subject. The inhalation of oxygen in the normal exercising individual also resulted in a lower pulse rate respiratory rate and pulmonary ventilation than that obtained when the exercise was conducted in air, but the percentage difference between the effect of oxygen in the alcoholic subject was considerably greater than in the non alcoholic subject, suggesting that the inhalation of oxygen tended specifically to counteract the handicapping influence of alcohol on muscular exercise

The psychological manifestations of alcoholism were slightly too moderately relieved or prevented by the inhalation of oxygen, but this varied considerably in individual subjects

The Simple Dialysate Nature of Edema Fluids Contrasted with the Specialized Composition of Cerebrospinal Fluid By Dorothy Rourke Gilligan and Marie C Volk (by invitation) and Herrman L Blumgart Boston Mass

The concentrations of certain electrolytes and non electrolytes in ascitic chest and subcutaneous edema fluid have been compared to the concentrations in both arterial and venous blood serum in twenty seven instances in patients with nephritis, cardiovascular disease, carcinoma and cirrhosis of the liver

The differences in the concentrations of the various electrolytes between the sera and fluids are governed by the differences in the protein contents, regard

less of the site of fluid formation or the underlying diseased state studied. The distribution, in terms of water content, of sodium, chloride, and bicarbonate between serum and the edema fluids is in close agreement with that expected for simple dialysates in accord with Donnan's membrane equilibrium law, when the source of the blood sample is considered. The average distribution ratios found were

$$\frac{\text{(Na+) edema fluids}}{\text{(Na+) serum}} = 0.96, \frac{\text{(Cl-) serum}}{\text{(Cl-) edema fluids}} = 0.98, \text{ and}$$

$$\frac{\text{(HCO}_3-) \text{ serum}}{\text{(HCO}_3-) \text{ edema fluids}} = 0.96,$$

for serum representative of blood midway between arterial and venous. The theoretic Donnan ratio for this series was 0.955. These results indicate that no bicarbonate is "bound" in the serum. The distributions of calcium, potassium, and inorganic phosphate indicate that fractions of these substances are bound in the serum. The concentrations of the non-electrolytes, sugar, total nonprotein nitrogen and creatinin were practically equal in serum water and corresponding fluid water, in accord with a simple dialysate nature for these body fluids. The distribution of the substances between serum and the edema fluids corresponds to the distribution found by Greene et al. (J. Biol. Chem., 1931, xci, 183) and others, between plasma and "in vivo" dialysates.

Our investigations show that the edema fluids studied are simple dialysates in equilibrium with blood plasma. This finding supports the hypothesis that these fluids have collected in abnormal amounts by virtue of an imbalance of the normal forces of formation and reabsorption and is in harmony with the concept that edema is primarily a quantitative rather than a qualitative abnormality

A comparison of our studies with the spinal fluid measurements of other investigators has an important bearing on the theories regarding the mechanism of spinal fluid formation by the choroid plexuses, for it indicates that spinal fluid is not a simple dialysate. The concentrations, expressed in terms of water content, of sugar, creatinin, total nonprotein nitrogen, and inorganic phosphate, are much lower in the spinal fluid than in the serum, contrasted with practically equal concentration of these constituents in edema fluids and serum The calcium content of spinal fluid is lower than the calcium content of edem? fluid with similarly low protein content or than the "in vivo" dialysate difference in chloride concentration between serum and spinal fluid is much greater than the chloride difference between serum and the edema fluids or the "in vivo" dialysate, when the differences in protein concentrations between the sera and the two types of fluid are similar Expressed in terms of water content, the ratio ((Cl-) serum/(Cl-) spinal fluid) is too low to accord with the theoretic Donnan ratio and conversely, the ratio ((HCO₃-) serum/ (HCO,-) spinal fluid) is too high. The choroid plexus must be considered a specialized structure and the fluid elaborated from it a specialized fluid rather than a simple dialysate

The Basal Respiratory Quotient and the Effect of a High Fat Meal on the Respiratory Quotient and Heat Production of Normal and Obese Individuals By Byron D Bowen and (by invitation) Fred R Griffith, Jr, and Grace E Sly, Buffalo, N Y

An attempt to demonstrate a qualitative metabolic difference between obese and normal individuals was undertaken. All subjects had previously taken an

unrestricted diet and were given the same test meal (100 grams of butter and 50 grams of mayonnaise). The Tissot spirometer and the Haldane gas analyzer were used. Tests not showing fairly steady ventilation volumes and CO-percentages in the expired air were rejected in order to eliminate the influence of hyperventilation. The effect of the meal was observed for six to ten hours.

The basal respiratory quotients of normal and obese subjects were 0 825 and 0 767—an average of 13 and 21 determinations (subjects) respectively. A similar difference was observed by Hagedorn et al., although the values obtained by them were higher due to a diet which had been rich in carbohydrate. The ingestion of the fat meal brought the quotients of both groups to approximately the same levels—about 0 80, indicating that both groups derived their extra energy for the specific dynamic action from the combustion of a similar mixture of carbohydrate and fat. This is opposed to the conclusions reached by Strouse and his coworkers from similar studies on a much smaller group

Similar studies made on a group of 11 obese diabetic patients at a time when the diabetes was under control by diet (but one had been taking insulin), showed the average respiratory quotient to be 0.765. The rise after the fat meal was less (0.782) than in the non diabetic obese group suggesting that the available carbohydrate reserve is less in the diabetic.

The specific dynamic action was essentially the same for all groups, which opposes the idea that obese individuals are unique in this respect

Levels of Lactic Acid in Blood from Periplical Vessels of Normal Subjects and Subjects with Claudication By George E Brown and (by invitation) Grace M Roth, Rochester Minn

Levels of lactic acid sugar, oxygen content and saturation of the blood of the femoral and brachial arteries and femoral and basilic veins have been studied in normal subjects and in subjects with occlusive disease of the major arteries of the upper and lower extremities. The relationship of levels of lactic acid and sugar has been investigated in relation to exercise and ischemic pains (claudication). The effect of cervicodorsal and lumbar sympathetic ganglionectomy on the lactic acid has been studied. A correlation has been demonstrated between the levels of lactic acid in the venous blood and the excessive fatigue and pain of intermittent claudication. The correlation is not sufficiently high however, to indicate a causal relationship between the two

Observations on the Circulation During and After Pregnancy By C Sidner Burwell Nashville Tenn, and (by invitation) W David Strayhorn Ir New York City N Y

Normal young women in the early months of pregnancy were selected and trained as subjects. The acetylene method of Grollman was used to determine the cardiac output per minute it was applied under the usual standard conditions in regard to rest and food. Observations were begun in the third or fourth month of pregnancy and continued at intervals of 2 to 6 weeks until delivery. They were repeated during the puerperium in each case.

In three of five women not only was there definite increase in cardiac output during pregnancy but this was greater than the increase in oxygen consump-

tion so that the arteriovenous difference was decreased

In two patients there was no consistent elevation of cardiac output during pregnancy although isolated observations showed values above normal. These patients had no unusual respiratory or circulatory symptoms or signs

In three women the cardiac output during the last weeks of pregnancy was lower than during several months preceding. In two of them it approached the values observed after delivery

In all five women the cardiac output and the A-V difference after delivery were not beyond the limits of normal

No striking variations in blood pressure were observed. The pulse was more rapid during than after pregnancy

Water and Sodium Chloride Balance in Patients Before and After Surgical Operations By John D Stewart and John H Talbott (by invitation) and Edward D Churchill, Boston, Mass

The water and salt balances of 16 patients were studied in several types of surgical operations. In 3 patients on whom a hermotomy was done no significant negative balance of sodium chloride was observed. The largest decrease in serum chloride was 30 m Eq., the average weight loss in the 5-day period of observation was 25 kgm.

In 4 patients on whom a partial gastrectomy was performed the average negative balance of sodium chloride was 44 grams. The average decrease in serum chloride was 27 m Eq. and the greatest weight loss was 17 kgm. In calculating the salt balance account was taken of chloride in vomitus and urine only. In the absence of diarrhea a small amount was presumed to be excreted in the stools. The remainder of the amount not accounted for was assumed to be lost in the sweat and drainage from the wound.

In 2 patients, on whom three-stage thoracoplasties were done, interesting findings were the changes in serum chloride. Four days after the first stage operation there was a decrease of 124 and 187 m Eq. in the respective patients. Following the second stage operation the greatest fall was 66 and 80 m Eq. and following the third stage was 14 m Eq. in the first patient. In the absence of noteworthy changes in the sodium chloride intake and output the above is taken as evidence of adjustment and adaptation to repeated loss of salt.

Transformation and Dissociation of Pneumococcus By M H Dawson, New York City, N Y

Previous work on transformation of type-specific pneumococcus by in vitio procedures is briefly reviewed. Evidence is presented which suggests that S forms of one specific type may be directly transformed into S forms of other specific types without passing through the intermediate R phase

A new colony variant of pneumococcus is described. This new colony variant presents characteristics strikingly different from those of the previously described R and S forms. The morphology of the individual organisms constituting the new colony variant is also quite unique. Evidence is presented which suggests that the new phase of pneumococcus is an indirect and not a direct product of the parent form, from which it is derived. On the other hand reversion of the new phase to its parent form appears to be sudden and abrupt. The observations indicate that the evolution of the various phases may be cyclical in character.

Bacterial dissociation in other species will be briefly discussed and the place of the new phase of pneumococcus in the general phenomenon of bacterial dissociation indicated. The evidence suggests that it will be necessary to revise the currently accepted terminology for dissociate forms of pneumococcus in accord with the following (1) M (mucoid)—formerly S (smooth), (2) S (smooth)—formerly R (rough), (3) R (rough)—not previously described

Studies on Effective Barium Chloride Dosage By Arthur C De Graff and (by invitation) Jean A Curran New York City N Y

In 1909 Rothberger and Winterberg's fundamental researches established the basis for the present clinical use of barium chloride. It was found that small amounts injected intravenously in dogs prevented ventricular standstill after combined nerve stimulation. Applying this finding to Adams Stokes' syndrome Colin and Levine in 1925 prevented seizures of ventricular standstill with doses of 30 to 60 mgm three times a day. On the other hand as much as 06 of a gram a day has been given without toxicity or benefit. Because of this confusion as to dosage both therapeutic and toxic, the present investigation was undertaken first to ascertain if a definite end point of effective dosage could be determined second to determine the effective barium chloride dosage on dogs uninfluenced by any anesthetic, narcotic or operative preparation and third to compare dosage by vein and by mouth in both dog and man. Since in any drug in which the end point of therapeutic effect is in doubt, it is desirable to increase the dosage to the point of mild toxicity, experiments were carried through to this level.

It was found that in dogs 041 to 091 mgm injected intravenously per kilogram of body weight caused mild toxicity and unmistakable changes in the electrocardiogram namely ventricular premature contractions, frequently with coupling and changes in the character of the T wave When given by mouth 97 to 189 mgm were needed to achieve similar results. Doses of over twice this amount caused moderately severe toxicity, but there were no fatalities. In man 063 to 088 mgm per kilogram of body weight were needed intravenously to give a definite end point, while 37 to 132 mgm per kilogram had to be administered by mouth to get parallel results. It was found that intravenously the greater the speed of injection the greater the effect. Electrocardio graphic changes caused by barium chloride given by mouth generally persisted as long as 6 to 7 hours but disappeared inside of 18 hours.

Conclusions

1 The electrocardiogram reveals changes following barium chloride which are constant and furnish an end point as a definite guide in effective dosage. This is probably above the therapeutic dosage and though mildly toxic is far below the lethal dose.

2 The electrocardiogram furnishes a guide as to the rate of elimination

3 Using these end points fairly constant relationship exists between the kilogram body weight and effective intravenous dosage

4 For a given speed of injection there is a remarkably close comparison of effective dose by vein per kilogram of body weight between subjects both dog and man

5 Using electrocardiographic changes as our end point of dosage we have shown the variability of comparative effective dosage by mouth from one subject to another

An Aid in the Diagnosis of Subacute Bacterial Endocarditis By Clifford L Derich and Samuel A Levine Boston Mass

Derick and Fulton in their paper on skin reactions of patients and normal individuals to protein extracts of streptococci reviewed the literature concerning the response of patients with subacute bacterial endocarditis to skin injections of streptococci and their products

Since that time we have continued these observations. In all, 20 patients

with this disease have been studied. Thirteen of these showed a positive blood culture. The other 7 had all the clinical evidences necessary for this diagnosis

Nucleoprotein extracts of hemolytic, green and indifferent streptococci were used as test materials. Only one case in which the diagnosis was not confirmed by blood culture showed a mildly positive response to the hemolytic streptococcis nucleoprotein. In all the other instances the tests were negative. In addition, one patient was tested with 0.2 cc. of a 24-hour broth culture of the autogenous viridans strain and another with approximately twenty million living organisms of Streptococcus scarlatinac. Both of these patients failed to show any reaction

All cases where subacute bacterial endocarditis was suspected on admission were tested as a routine procedure. Since none of the patients proven to have subacute bacterial endocarditis showed a reaction, the finding of a positive test practically rules out this diagnosis. We have found this test of considerable diagnostic value.

The Effect of Arteriosclerosis and of Benign and Malignant Hypertension on the Area of Histamine Flares By A Carlton Ernstene and (by invitation) Maurice Snyder, Cleveland, Ohio

In 30 normal individuals between the ages of 18 and 58 years, the average area of the flare produced by injection of histamine into the skin of the forearm was 31 sq cm. The smallest flare observed had an area of 18 sq cm, while an area of less than 25 sq cm was observed in only 6 individuals. In a group of elderly subjects with advanced grades of arteriosclerosis but with normal arterial blood pressure, flares of reduced area usually were recorded, while in other patients with slight or moderate thickening of the arterial walls, little or no diminution was the rule. Flares of normal area were obtained in 21 individuals with essential hypertension of the benign type. In 11 subjects with malignant hypertension however, the average area of the flare was 14 sq cm and in only one patient did it exceed 19 sq cm. Only two of the patients presented an advanced grade of arteriosclerosis.

Lewis demonstrated that the flare following a histamine stimulus results from dilatation of the strong arterioles of the skin. The diminution in the area of the flares observed in subjects with malignant hypertension and in those with advanced arteriosclerosis suggests the presence of structural changes in the walls of these vessels, although in malignant hypertension the possibility of severe and permanent vasoconstriction must be considered

The results of the investigation indicate that measurement of the size of the histamine flare affords data of considerable importance in the clinical study of patients with essential hypertension

The Relationship of Cerebrospinal Fluid Pressure to Systemic Blood Pressure
By Frank Fremont-Smith and (by invitation) H Houston Merritt,
Boston, Mass

A comparative study of systemic blood pressure and cerebrospinal fluid pressure has been made in over 1600 patients

In 1418 patients the systolic blood pressures ranged from 50 to 300 mm Hg and the diastolic blood pressures ranged from 30 to 190 mm Hg. A study of these cases showed no significant correlation between the level of blood pressure and the cerebrospinal fluid pressure

In 125 patients with elevated cerebrospinal fluid pressure, varying from 200 to over 1300 mm of water, the blood pressure was rarely elevated excepting when the cerebrospinal fluid pressure was extremely high, approaching the level of the normal diastolic blood pressure. In 22 cases with cerebrospinal

fluid pressure varying from 500 to 800 mm of water, only 4 had a systolic blood pressure of 150 mm. Hg or over

In 63 patients with uremia or congestive heart failure, the cerebrospinal fluid pressure was frequently elevated but showed no correlation with the

systemic blood pressure

These results indicate that in man, as has been previously shown in animals, the cerebrospinal fluid pressure is not directly related to the systemic blood pressure and that an elevation of the cerebrospinal fluid pressure has no ap preciable effect on the systemic blood pressure until the cerebrospinal fluid pressure level approaches the normal level of the diastolic blood pressure When this occurs the systemic blood pressure becomes elevated to maintain cerebral circulation. A short discussion of the physiological mechanisms involved is given

Conclusions

1 The level of systolic or diastolic blood pressure has no appreciable influence upon the cerebrospinal fluid pressure

2 In uremia and congestive heart failure the cerebrospinal fluid pressure

is frequently elevated

3 The level of cerebrospinal fluid pressure has no appreciable effect on systemic blood pressure unless the cerebrospinal fluid pressure is greatly increased so as to approach the level of the diastolic blood pressure. Under these circumstances there is a rise in the systemic blood pressure.

The Interpretation of the Blood Sedimentation Rate (With Reference to Curves Obtained with Special Recording Apparatus) By A Proshouriahoff (by invitation) and Burgess Gordon, Philadelphia Pa

Comparisons are made between curves obtained with the usual technique of interval charting and those with a special electrical recorder which plots continuously the level of sedimentation. The data suggest that variations in the degree and rate at certain periods may be significant in the interpretation of the curves.

A Critical Examination of Methods for Determining the Cardiac Output in Patients with Cardiac Disease By T R Harrison and (by invitation)
Arthur Grollman, Ben Friedman, and Gurney Clark, Nashville,
Tenn

The accuracy and applicability of the acetylene method, the Burwell Robinson method and the venous plateau method have been studied by comparing them with each other and by testing the validity of the assumptions underlying them. In normal subjects and in certain persons with mild congestive heart failure the two latter methods agree excellently with the acetylene method which is based on an entirely different principle. However, the three methods as ordinarily applied disagree in certain patients with heart failure and these have been the object of special studies, from which the following conclusions are drawn.

1 In certain cases with heart failure the Burwell Robinson method may occasionally yield inaccurate results and therefore cannot be used with safety

2 The venous plateau method gives accurate results when certain rigid criteria are adopted. For technical reasons and because of the discomfort to the subject involved in the procedure it is not usually the method of choice

3 The acetylene method may yield false results when only one determination of the arteriorenous difference is made at a single rebreathing. When two

measurements are made of the arteriorenous difference during a single rebreathing and are found to agree, the results are accurate. Because of its technical advantages this acetylene plateau method is the procedure of choice

Criteria have been described whereby in a given case the applicability of a given method may be tested, so as to have no doubt of a given result. Unless these criteria are rigidly adhered to, markedly erroneous results may be obtained. In patients with severe congestive heart failure these criteria may be impossible of fulfillment.

The Interference with the Pulmonary Capillary Circulation by Fat and the Effect of Intravenous Alcohol Devirose By Louis G Herrmann (by invitation) and George R Herrmann, Galveston, Texas

Rabbits and dogs were carefully selected and in double pairs injected at a uniform speed and without undue force at the rate of 1 cc per minute with warm (37° C) liquid, sterile, neutral fat in doses of 1 cc per kilo of body weight. One animal of each series was kept as a control. Manifestations of disturbances of pulmonary circulation and the resulting anovemia, as extreme restlessness, severe dyspnea and cyanosis, appeared rather promptly. The symptoms consistently disappeared almost immediately following the intravenous injection of 5 cc per kilo of body weight of the alcohol-dextrose solution. This was repeated at the end of 12 hours in two of the series and in 24 hours in one of the remaining two. At the end of 48 hours all animals were sacrificed and the lungs promptly and completely fixed showed a sharp decrease in the amount of neutral fat globules in the pulmonary capillaries according to the number of injections with almost a complete clearing in those animals that had received three injections

Data are being accumulated on the types and amounts of neutral fat, fatty acids, cholesterol and phosphatids by volumetric determination in the arterial and venous blood, in the general and in the pulmonary circulation, before and after the injection of neutral fat, and after the injections of alcohol-dextrose. The quantitative distribution and the rate of disappearance of fat from the blood stream have been determined

Clinical Manifestations of Hypo- and Hyper-Magnesaemia By Arthur D Hirschfelder, Minneapolis, Minn

Although blood magnesium is usually constant (2 to 3 mgm Mg per 100 cc) in normal individuals, we have observed two distinct clinical groups in which significant alterations of blood magnesium were associated with concomitant clinical manifestations

1 Low blood magnesium (09 to 137 mgm) was found in 10 cases, all manifesting twitching or convulsions. One of these was parathyroid tetany, two epilepsy, one cerebral injury, the others acute or chronic nephritis. Three of the latter were given Epsom salts by mouth, whereupon the blood magnesium rose to from 33 to 58 mgm. Mg, and twitchings or convulsions disappeared

There thus seems to be a definite clinical syndrome associated with low blood magnesium

2 High blood magnesium. This was found especially in nephritics after the administration of Epsom salts. In normal individuals 20 to 30 grams MgSO₄ 7H₂O by mouth does not significantly raise the blood magnesium and about 40 per cent is excreted in the urine in 24 hours. In nephritics less of the ingested Mg is excreted in the urine, and the blood magnesium rises.

Twenty to 30 grams MgSO₄ 7H₂O administered to 9 patients with acute

and chronic glomerulonephritis raised blood magnesium from near normal to 98 to 113 mgm. All these patients were definitely more drowsy when at these levels. Two neplirities with blood magnesium 89 to 90 mgm without administration of MgSO₄ were definitely drowsy and unresponsive.

Coma is induced in animals when the blood magnesium approaches 17 mgm

Mg per 100 cc

Elevation of blood magnesium to about two thirds of the coma level thus seems to be accompanied by a tendency to somnolence

It is probable that repeated purgative doses of Epsom salts by mouth can induce coma in nephritics, and that many cases of supposed uremic coma are really magnesium coma induced by Epsom salts. From this coma animals and probably patients can be awakened and their lives prolonged by intravenous calcium chloride.

Nephritic rabbits whose blood magnesium is moderately elevated (5 to 10 mgm Mg) by orally administered MgSO, are hypersensitive to morphine

The Blood Pressure in Stenosis of the Isthmus (Coarctation) of the Aorta By John T King, Baltimore, Md

The blood pressure in the arms in cases of isthmus stenosis (coarctation) of the aorta is so often greater than normal that many observers have assumed hypertension to be a necessary part of the diagnostic picture. In the author's experience hypertension was found in the arms in ten of eleven cases. One patient showed typical signs of coarctation including relative hypotension in the legs, but in her case the arm pressures were always within normal limits

An analysis of the literature showed normal arm pressures present in twenty per cent of cases of isthmus stenosis in which pressure readings were recorded. The author's case is the seventeenth reported instance of normal arm pressure in coarctation of the aorta.

The Effects of Alternate Suction and Pressure on Blood Flow in the Lower Extremities of Normal Subjects and of Patients with Peripheral Vascular Disease By Eugene M Landis and (by invitation) John H Gie non, Jr Philadelphia, Pa

The lower extremities of normal subjects and of patients with peripheral vascular disease were inserted into an aluminium box through a well fitted, heavy rubber diaphragm. Negative pressure, amounting to 120 mm. Hg was applied for 25 seconds alternating with positive pressure amounting to 100 mm. Hg for 5 seconds.

Increase in blood flow to the distal portion of the lower extremity was identified by thermo electric measurements of digital skin temperatures. In normal subjects the extremity exposed to alternate suction and pressure cooled more slowly than the control extremity. When vasoconstrictor tone was diminished slightly by immersing one forearm in warm water the temperature of the extremity exposed to suction and pressure rose earlier, and to a greater height than that of the control extremity. With the subject chilly and the extremities cold suction and pressure in some observations had no measurable effect on blood flow until vasoconstrictor tone was slightly diminished by warming the body. In most instances the control extremity cooled while the rising temperature in the extremity exposed to suction and pressure indicated an increase in blood flow on that side

In patients with peripheral vascular disease alternate suction and pressure was accompanied by conspicuous warming (and therefore by increased blood

flow) in extremities showing no rise in temperature during anesthesia of the posterior tibial nerve. In the presence of obstructive lesions of more moderate grade the more involved (and cooler) extremity was made the warmer of the two extremities by alternate suction and pressure

The results indicate that this apparatus may possibly be used as a "peripheral heart" to increase blood flow in the lower extremities of patients with peripheral vascular disease.

The Normal White Blood Cell Picture By Edgar Jones and Doran J Stephens (by invitation) and John S Lawrence, Rochester, N Y

Data have been collected from observations on sixteen normal adults which indicate that there are slight variations in the number of the white blood cells in the peripheral circulation under basal conditions. These fluctuations have been found to be greater than our error of technique. Determinations of the number of white blood cells have been made at 15 minute intervals over four hour periods. Differential counts have shown that all of the cells show fluctuations but the greatest of these are shown by the neutrophils. No rhythm, no showers of "non-motile" cells and no appreciable variations in the number of "stab" forms have been found

The effect of change of posture has been carefully investigated in thirty-five normal adults and eighteen adults with a variety of clinical disorders. No significant variation has been found to be associated with change in position

Observations on the effect of digestion on the white blood cell count in thirteen normal adults have shown a slight increase in the number of the cells in the majority of these individuals two to four hours after the ingestion of a large meal. The neutrophils account for most of the changes in the total number of white blood cells in these subjects.

Observations of the Cerebral Blood Flow in Man By F A GIBBS and E L GIBBS (by invitation) and W G LENNON, Boston, Mass

A thermo-electric blood flow recorder has been devised for measuring the rate of blood flow through the internal jugular vein of man. Continuous records have been made over a period of three or four hours of the variations in flow through the internal jugular vein of unanesthetized human subjects. Records have been obtained of the flow associated with epileptic convulsions and with sleep. Observations so far fail to show significant changes in cerebral blood flow immediately preceding these events. The effect on cerebral blood flow of alterations in blood gases and of the administration of certain drugs has been studied. High CO₂ and low O₂ increase and low CO₂ decreases cerebral blood flow. Adrenalin produces a marked increase in flow, as do also amyl nitrite and acetyl cholin unless the fall in systemic blood pressure is too great. Caffeine and ergotamine tartrate produces a more lasting increase in cerebral blood flow than any of the other agents studied.

Single Cell Inoculations with Treponema Pallidum By Clarence S Thomas (by invitation) and High J Morgan, Nashville, Tenn

The development of syphilis in the rabbit following intratesticular injection of test material affords positive evidence of the presence of *Treponema pallidum* in the inoculum. Failure to thus infect has been interpreted as indicating the absence of *Treponema pallidum* in the inoculum. Inasmuch as this interpretation is widely used in the study of experimental syphilis (immunity, chemotherapy) it seemed desirable to test the validity of the assumption upon which it is based.

In preliminary experiments inocula, in which the presence of a few organisms seemed probable, failed to produce infection. An attempt was made to definitely determine this point by the inoculation of single organisms. A drop of diluted syphilitic testicular emulsion was placed in a most chamber. By dark field illumination and with a micro manipulator it was possible to aspirate one or several organisms into fine glass pipettes. The pipette tips were immediately placed in syringe needles and injected into the testicles of rabbits. The testicles were then vigorously massaged.

Eighteen rabbits were thus injected with single organisms (11 Nichols strain 7 'S" strain) Four additional animals were inoculated, three with two organisms each (Nichols strain) and one with six organisms ('S" strain) All remained normal At appropriate intervals transfers to a second series and from the second to a third series of rabbits were made all with negative results Immunity to the homologous strain was not present in those animals of the third series which were re inoculated

The Cholesterol Content of the Blood in Obesity Including Observations of the Effect of a Diet Low in Fals Carbohydrates and Total Calories on the Blood Cholesterol 1 By MAURICE BRUGER 2 (introduced by Herman O Mosenthal) New York City, N Y

Two hundred and seventy seven plasma cholesterol determinations were made on seventy five cases of obesity. The percentage of overweight varied from 20 to 122 per cent, with an average of 477 per cent for the group

Uncomplicated (frank exogenous) obesity is associated with a normal plasma cholesterol. Diabetes mellitus hypertension, arteriosclerosis and hypothyroidism tend to elevate the plasma cholesterol in the obese

The normal plasma cholesterol in obesity is not affected materially by low-caloric, low fat diets in patients followed at regular intervals for approximately one year. The hypercholesterolemia in obesity complicated by diabetes mellitus, etc. usually shows a distinct elevation the first few weeks on low caloric, low-fat diets but tends to fall appreciably below the control level following several months on such a regime

General considerations of diet and loss in weight in the obese in relation to the plasma cholesterol are discussed

Leukocytosis Following the Intramuscular Injection of Liver Extract By William P Murphy and (by invitation) John H Powers and Katharine Humphreys Boston Mass, and Cooperstown N Y

Determinations of the total white cells and the total number and percentage of polymorphonuclear neutrophiles in the peripheral circulating blood of 16 normal subjects before and after the intramuscular injection of liver extract have been presented in graphic form. The individuals were divided into 2 groups ambulatory and recumbent

The average maximal increase in the total number of white cells of the imbulatory group was 941 per cent higher than the average of all control counts and occurred 7 hours after the extract was administered. The greatest individual response in this group was 185 per cent and the lowest was 23 per cent above the average of the 4 control counts made on each of these 2 subjects the previous day. The average maximal increase in total white cells of the patients of the recumbent group was 72 per cent above the normal level and

Added by a grant from the Josiah Macy Jr, Foundation Oliver Rea Fellow in Medicine.

flow) in extremities showing no rise in temperature during anesthesia of the posterior tibial nerve. In the presence of obstructive lesions of more moderate grade the more involved (and cooler) extremity was made the warmer of the two extremities by alternate suction and pressure

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water bath for 1 hour, the difference in $\rm O_2$ content, minus that used by the blood alone, was taken as the amount consumed by the tissue Liver and kidney tissues from 15 anemic and 15 control rabbits were used, the iron content of tissue and blood scrum being determined

Under these conditions tissues from anemic animals do not utilize as much oxyen as those of normal tissues by about 50 per cent. The results demonstrate the fact that, in general, anemia affects all the tissues and not the blood alone.

The Excretion of Bence Jones Protein in the Nephrotic Syndrome By How ard F Root and (by invitation) Hazel M Hunt. Boston. Mass

A case is presented of a 12 year old boy showing edema albuminuria, low serum protein content inversion of the albumin globulin ratio in blood serum and the hypercholesterolemia characteristic of nephrosis and excreting considerable amounts of albumin and of albumose of the Bence Jones type The 24 hour excretion of albumin varied from a trace to 95 grams. The albumose varied in amount but it was possible once to isolate as much as 15 gram from a 24 hour specimen in a finely powdered condition by precipitation at 55° C This isolated material gave the characteristic tests for Bence-Jones protein The use of a high protein diet (protein 130 to 160 grams, carbohydrate 160 grams, and fat 100 to 150 grams) and thyroid extract (gr v daily) brought about the following results In a period of 4 months anasarca disappeared basal metabolism rose from -16 to +7 per cent serum protein rose from 29 to 47 per cent. The albumin globulin ratio returned to normal cretion of Bence-Jones protein in the urine ceased The plasma cholesterol rose steadily from 439 to 1250 mgm per 100 cc. A constant retention of nitrogen averaging 10 grams daily occurred during the first 6 weeks. Nitrogen balance was reached in 8 weeks. No cause other than the nephrotic syndrome was found for the occurrence of the Bence-Jones protein

Even when the albumosuria was most marked no albumose was found in the blood plasma. This fact suggests that abnormality in the renal mechanism was responsible for the albumosuria rather than the formation of albumose in other tissues. transportation by the blood to the kidney and its excretion

It has been held that the hypercholesterolemia of nephrosis is due to tissue starvation. The degree of tissue manition in this case may be judged by the fact that for 6 weeks he retained nitrogen in amounts varying from 6 to 12 grams daily. The plasma cholesterol of 1250 mgm, is higher than any figure mentioned in Leiter's review of the subject. As yet the cholesterol has not begun to decrease although the clinical improvement is most marked.

The disappearance of edema when the serum protein remained at a low level indicates that some additional mechanism was involved in maintaining the osmotic pressure within the vessels. It is suggested that the high concentration

of cholesterol acted in this manner to prevent edema

Studies on Specificity of Streptococci The Experimental Reproduction of Persistent Successing with a Streptococcus Isolated from a Case By Edward C Rosenow, Rochester, Minn

The streptococcus isolated from the nasopharynx of the patient on the eighth day of persistent sneezing and from the brain and other tissues of inoculated animals was grown in dextrose brain broth and the cataphoretic velocity was determined in distilled water with the Northrop Kunitz Mudd apparatus

Rabbits were inoculated intracerebrally intratracheally and intraperitoneally, and does intracerebrally Persistent sneezing, which continued to recur often

occurred 6 hours after the injection of liver extract. The highest and lowest individual responses in the members of this group were 101 and 20 per cent

A similar increase in the total number of white cells and the total number and percentage of polymorphonuclear neutrophiles was obtained in one patient with influenza

The leukocytosis in every instance was due to an increase in the polymorphonuclear neutrophiles

The Occurrence of Pneumococcus Variants in Lobar Pneumonia By John R Paul and (by invitation) J A Lawrence, New Haven, Conn

Whether or not S pneumococci dissociate into avirulent variants during the clinical course of lobar pneumonia is the subject of this report. The work has been based upon recent observations upon the *in vitro* dissociation of S pneumococci which show that beside the well recognized and easily revertible, intermediate and R variants, there are also so-called R G variants, some of which are bile insoluble and apparently indistinguishable from *Streptococcus viridans*. These are difficult to revert back to the S forms

Twenty-seven cases of lobar pneumonia were studied with daily throat cultures upon which differential bacterial colony counts were made. A shift in the throat flora was found at or about the time of crisis, S forms diminish, and suspected, unstable R and R G forms appear in great numbers during the first few postcritical days. To establish the identity of these suspected R G forms the attempt to revert strains isolated before and after crisis was made in about twenty-five instances. Three successful reversion experiments are reported upon R G strains isolated in the first week after crisis. The results suggest that virulent pneumococci undergo marked dissociation within the human host during pneumonia. The clinical implications are briefly discussed

Observations on the Living Choroid Plevius By Tracy J Putnam (Boston) and (by invitation) Eric Ask-Upmark (Lund, Sweden)

It is possible to observe the living choroid plexus of the cat under the microscope. By micrometry, the arteries can be seen to contract and expand under nervous and chemical influences, much as do the pial vessels. If the surface is stained with methylene blue, the choroid ependyma, the muscular coat of the arteries and occasionally nerve fibers may be demonstrated. The axones of the subjacent white matter are easily stained. If fluoresceine be injected intravenously, it may be seen to escape through the walls of the capillaries and veins, particularly the latter. This is perhaps of significance in relation to the pathogenesis of some cerebral diseases in which the lesions have a perivascular distribution.

Tissue Metabolism in Secondary Anemia By Herman H Riecker, Ann Arbor, Mich

The object of this experiment was to determine whether the tissues of animals made anemic by hemorrhage could utilize oxygen at the same rate as those of normal animals. Previous work by Anson and Mirsky, Keilen, and Warburg indicated the possibilities that the iron-containing respiratory pigment (hem) of the cell might be partially depleted by iron starvation.

A simple method was devised which seemed suitable for the study. Normal defibrinated rabbit's blood was oxygenated and 1 to 2 grams of the tissue macerated and mixed with the blood. Twenty cc of the blood was used and the oxygen content determined before and after exposure to the tissue in a

water bath for 1 hour the difference in O content, minus that used by the blood alone, was taken as the amount consumed by the tissue Liver and kidney tissues from 15 anemic and 15 control rabbits were used, the iron content of tissue and blood serum being determined

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for many hours, was produced by the different methods of injection of the live streptococcus as isolated and after many rapidly repeated subcultures in dextrose-brain broth, of suspensions of the heat-killed streptococcus and of filtrates of active cultures

The lesions produced were typical of encephalitis and were mainly in the medulla

The results in control animals injected in like manner with streptococci from patients having other diseases of the nervous system, were very different, in that sneezing was almost wholly absent and in that many animals revealed symptoms and other findings characteristic of the respective diseases studied

The cataphoretic velocity of the streptococci as isolated at the time of the attack or shortly after in the case of persistent sneezing, and in the control group, before and after animal passage, was mainly neurotropic. The neurotropic velocity and concomitantly the property of producing sneezing, were lost promptly on ordinary aerobic cultivation.

A Significant Contrast Between Vasomotor Responses of the Peripheral Arteries By W J Merle Scott and John J Morton, Rochester, N Y

To determine the respective contributions of vasoconstriction and of mechanical occlusion has become essential in the clinical analysis of arterial diseases in the extremities For this purpose two different vasomotor responses of the peripheral circulation have been used, viz (1) the effect of vasoconstrictor paralysis and (2) that of vasodilator stimulation, the tacit assumption being made that the two resultant effects are approximately identical. In a group of fifteen individuals with normal blood vessels this is found usually to be the case, both paralysis of sympathetic vasoconstriction and stimulation of sympathetic vasodilatation causing an elevation of the surface temperature in the foot to the "normal vasodilatation level" Significant differences in the response of the local circulation to these two vasomotor reactions are found both in some individuals with normal and in those with pathological arteries Occasionally the response to vasodilator stimulation is so much delayed or so much diminished as compared to the response to vasoconstrictor paralysis that the former is entirely unreliable for clinical purpose. As a corollary of this finding, in the clinical test unless an approximately maximal response to vasodilator stimulation is obtained the effect of vasoconstrictor paralysis should be ascertained

On the Diagnosis of Myocardial Disease by Means of the Basal Cardiac Work By Isaac Starr, Jr, and (by invitation) J S Donal, L H Collins, Jr, A Margolies, and C J Gamble, Philadelphia, Pa

The normal standards for basal cardiac work (cardiac output multiplied by mean blood pressure) have been determined by Starr, Collins and Wood (J Clin Invest, 1933, xii, 13) Since that investigation the basal cardiac work and the heart size have been determined for about 100 additional cases, including all the types of heart disease that could be secured. In this presentation it is proposed to discuss these results from the clinical point of view

All cases in, or obviously threatened with, congestive failure were found to have invocardial insufficiency, i.e. their hearts were doing abnormally small amounts of work per unit of heart size. Therefore these estimations may appear to be of value in the diagnosis of this condition. A considerable number of cases of hyperthyroidism and hypertension showed the same abnormality.

On the other hand the majority of cases of angina pectoris and coronary

occlusion (an old infarct was later demonstrated at autopsy in two patients) had a normal basal cardiac work

Cases of effort syndrome show a small basal cardiac work, but give no evidence of myocardial insufficiency because they have small hearts and the work per unit of heart size is within normal limits

Alterations in the Specific Gravity of the Plasma of the Blood with the Onset of Dinresis in Patients Suffering from Heart Failure of the Congestive Type By Harold J Stewart New York City, N Y

The mechanism of the occurrence and elimination of edema in heart disease is still incompletely understood. Where, in a system regarded as circulating blood located between the tissues and the kidneys, must a stimulus be applied in order that diuresis may be initiated? Different types of diuretics may obviously act at different points. If the kidneys are first affected so that fluid passes from the circulating blood concentration of the blood should occur. If, on the other hand, the process is initiated in the tissues, fluid first enters the circulating blood and dilution occurs and may be detected if it lasts long enough and is great enough.

Light on what the occurrences are when edema disappears may be gained by studying the blood to see whether concentration or dilution takes place Changes in the specific gravity of the blood plasma may be utilized to trace the alterations in the blood The method of Van Slyke and Moore has been used It is now known that the specific gravity of the plasma of normal individuals varies from day to day within narrow limits only. It is moreover closely correlated with the amount of protein present in the blood. In cardiac patients the occurrence of edema does not depend on the level of specific gravity of the plasma which has in fact a normal value. We have investigated the curve of specific gravity with the onset and continuance of digress in patients suffering from heart failure of the congestive type who exhibited edema and accumulations of fluid. One case will serve to illustrate the alterations which were observed B McL, female, white 56 years of age suffering from a second attack of heart failure of the congestive type, exhibited edema of the extremities Arterial hypertension and enlargement of the heart were present, Rapid ventricular rate due to auricular fibrillation was present. Although the intake of fluids was restricted to 1200 cc. per day and she remained in bed the output of urine did not rise beyond 200 to 300 cc per day and she did not lose weight the specific gravity of the plasma of the blood measured 1 0278 Digitalis 1 2 gram was given within 24 hours, the ventricular rate became slower diuresis occurred and the patient lost weight. The specific gravity of the plasma fell to 1 0240 and remained in that zone during diuresis but when diuresis stopped the specific gravity returned to the level it had had beforehand (10280) Duresis sometimes was accompanied by similar changes when it occurred spon taneously as a result of limitation in the administration of fluids and of rest in bed and also as a result of giving theocalcin. By taking samples of blood frequently it was found that decrease in the specific gravity of plasma appeared to precede the onset of diuresis and that it was possible to predict the occurrence of diuresis Estimation of the total amount of protein excreted by way of the urine during the periods of diuresis failed to account for the low concentration of protein indicated by the alteration in specific gravity crease was due not to loss of protein from the blood, but to dilution of the blood by edema fluid. In another patient, in whom the specific gravity of the plasma of the blood before the onset of diuresis was 1 0270 the bi of the edema fluid was 1 0084. With the occurrence of d

gravity of the plasma fell to 10240, had approximately 400 cc of edema fluid having a specific gravity of 10084 entered the blood, the amount would have been sufficient to reduce the specific gravity of the plasma to the observed level (10240)

Using alteration in specific gravity as a measure of concentration of protein in the blood, it appears that diuresis, in the presence of heart failure of the congestive type, depends on changes initiated in the tissues, and is accompanied by dilution of the circulating blood

Constitutional, Hereditary and Familial Features of Pernicious Anemia By Cyrus C Sturgis and Raphael Isaacs and (by invitation) L R Gates, Ann Arbor, Mich

A study of 680 consecutive patients with pernicious anemia and a similar number of non-pernicious anemia patients of the same locality and age groups was made, correlating the weight, hair color, eye color, ear length, blood pressure, spleen size, blood count, blood bilirubin, lymph node size, heart size, heart murmurs, gallbladder, age incidence, duration and individual symptoms. The disease incidence in the family and system incidence in the patients were correlated and the significance or non-significance was determined from Fisher's table of χ^2 . A similar study was made, correlating the various symptoms of the patients. Pernicious anemia occurred more frequently in the families of the pernicious anemia patients than in the others. No significant correlation was evident between the special system disease tendency in any individual patient and a history of similar system disease in the family, although there was a moderate tendency for the association of these symptoms in the presence of a family history of heart disease, gastro-intestinal, genito-urinary, and skin disease and tuberculosis

The Absorption of Thyroxine from the Gastro-Intestinal Tract, with Special Reference to the Effect of Alkali By Willard O Thompson and (by invitation) Phebe K Thompson, Samuel G Taylor, III, and Lois F N Dickie, Chicago, Ill

A large number of observations on twelve patients with myvedema show that pure synthetic thyroxine when given by mouth or directly into the duodenum has only a slight effect on the basal metabolism, whereas, when given by mouth in the form of its monosodium salt, it has about one-quarter to one-fifth as much effect as when given intravenously, and when given in solution with an excess of sodium hydroxide, it has a much greater effect which nearly equals its effect by the intravenous route. Dissolving thyroxine in an excess of sodium hydroxide results in the formation of the disodium salt. Squibb's thyroxine for oral use, which presumably contains a sodium salt of thyroxine and some thyroxine in peptide combination, has about two-thirds to three-fifths as much effect as thyroxine intravenously and about three times as much effect as the monosodium salt of synthetic thyroxine given orally

Since pure thyroxine is insoluble in most solvents and its monosodium salt only slightly soluble, while the disodium salt and thyroxine in peptide combination are much more soluble, it would appear that the solubility of the thyroxine compound administered is an important factor in its absorption from the gastrointestinal tract and hence in its effect on the basal metabolism. The solubility of thyroxine peptide and polypeptide derived from desiccated thyroid during digestion in the gastro-intestinal tract may explain the fact that desiccated thyroid by mouth has about the same effect as thyroxine intravenously on the basis of equivalent iodine contents

The Dissolution of Clotted Plasma by Hemolytic Streptococci the Relation of This Phenomenon to Acute Hemolytic Streptococcus Infections By William S Tillett and (by invitation) R L Garner Baltimore Md

Hemolytic streptococci isolated from patients are capable of rapidly liquefying clotted human plasma. Sterile Berkefeld filtrates of full grown broth cultures contain the fibrinolytic property to a high degree. Broth cultures and sterile filtrates of hemolytic streptococci (beta type) derived from human cases possess this property when tested with clotted human plasma. The human strains fail completely to liquefy the fibrin clot of plasma derived from many animals. Available strains of hemolytic streptococci derived from animals are incapable of liquefying human clot. Fibrinogen, chemically isolated from plasma, when coagulated with thrombin in the presence of suitable culture or filtrate is rapidly liquefied. Dissolution under these conditions occurs with both animal and human material. The rate of liquefaction is such that 0.5 cc. of culture or filtrate transforms 1 cc. of solid clotted plasma into a completely fluid state within fifteen to twenty minutes. A comparable amount of fibrinogen, when coagulated in the presence of culture, is completely liquefied in five minutes.

Pathogenic bacteria, such as pneumococci, green streptococci, typhoid bacilli, etc, similarly tested, have not exhibited a comparable fibrinolytic property

The fibrin digesting power of hemolytic streptococci suggests an explanation for the manifestations of acute streptococcus infections which are charac terized by thin fibrin poor exudates such as are seen in the early stages of hemolytic streptococcus empyema

By repeated tests on plasma obtained from patients ill with hemolytic strep tococcus infections, recovery frequently parallels or is followed by the develop ment in the blood of a property by which clot digestion is inhibited. Effective resistance to the activity of the fibrinolytic ferment is most commonly demon strable in the plasma of patients recovered from suppurative hemolytic streptococcus infections. The development in the blood of recovered patients of the capacity to inhibit this bacterial activity seems to be a form of resistance which differs in the parallel tests so far performed from streptococcal agglutinins or the anti-streptolysin described by Todd

Observations on the Etiological Relationship of Severe Alcoholism to Pellagra
By Tom D Spies and H F DeWolf (introduced by Joseph T Wearn),
Cleveland, Ohio

It is generally agreed that the pelligra found in the North is usually asso ciated with severe alcoholism. This study demonstrates that over ninety per cent of the patients develop the lesions of pelligra following excessive drinking. Ten patients having typical alcoholic pelligra, recovered from their disease while receiving an adequate diet and large quantities of corn whiskey. On theoretical grounds it may be considered that the whiskey predisposes to the development of pelligra either by destroying the so-called "pelligra preventive" factor or by altering the gastro-intestinal tract so that it becomes incapable of assimilating the preventive substance. Likewise it has been suggested on theoretical grounds that foreign substances in the whiskey such as the higher alcohols produce the lesions of pelligra.

It appears unlikely however that there is any specific deleterious material present in the many kinds of beverages taken. The present observations show that the consumption of large quantities of whiskey at the same time that an adequate diet is received does not interfere with the clinical improvement of

the patients This is strong evidence that alcohol does not directly inactivate either all of the gastric secretion or all of the potent substances in the food. It is well known that many individuals drink large quantities of alcoholic beverages for years without suffering from loss of appetite, vomiting or pellagra. Correlation of these findings suggests the following hypothesis. Severe alcoholic imbibition by some individuals causes inadequate ingestion of food by decreasing the appetite and often precipitates nausea and vomiting. These predispose to the development of pellagra because the person no longer receives an adequate duet but utilizes the calories in the alcohol

The Clinical Significance of the Hyperactive Carotid Sinus Reflex By Soma Weiss and (by invitation) James P Baker, Boston, Mass

A study has been made of the circulatory and nervous system of 12 subjects who complained of dizziness and fainting, and in whom the mechanical stimulation of one or each of the carotid sinuses induced characteristic aura, dizziness, fainting and convulsive seizures Three main types of cardiovascular responses were observed following stimulation of the sinus (a) marked asystole or sudden slowing of the heart rate with or without marked fall in the arterial blood pressure, (b) marked fall in the arterial blood pressure, but without essential cardiac slowing, (c) changes in the cerebral circulation without essential slowing of the heart rate, and without fall in the arterial blood pressure. Stimulation of the hyperactive carotid sinus reflex induced striking changes in the intracardiac conductive system partial and complete heart block, temporary asystole of the ventricle with continued auricular contraction, nodal rhythm, ventricular extrasystoles, change in the shape of the T waves, and complete inversion of the electrical axis in the heart The observations also demonstrate that Adams-Stokes syndrome can be induced reflexly

Evidence is presented that the clinical symptoms and signs observed, as well as the cardiovascular changes, are due to stimulation of the sinus and not to direct motor vagal stimulation

During stimulation of the reflex, the volume and velocity of blood flow became decreased. There was also a slowing of the blood flow through the brain. In the precipitation of fainting and convulsions the rate (time element), rather than the absolute deviation from the normal circulatory state of the brain, plays the primary role. This temporary, sudden ischemia, even if of short duration, sets up a sequence of events in the brain which proceeds independently to convulsions even if hyperemia promptly follows the ischemia

Section of the carotid sinus nerve in two cases abolished the spontaneous fainting attacks

Studies on the Prevention of Cholesterol Atheroselerosis in Rabbits By Kenneth B Turner and George B Kharat (introduced by Randolph West), New York City, N Y

Atherosclerosis of the aorta was readily produced in rabbits by feeding cholesterol. The lesions were prevented in 17 of 19 animals by the simultaneous administration of dried whole thyroid gland with the cholesterol, while comparable thyroxin dosage was effective in only 3 of 10 rabbits. The changes produced by cholesterol were also prevented by potassium iodide in 17 of 18 animals. The bromide and chloride of potassium were ineffective. If complete thyroidectomies were performed upon the rabbits, potassium iodide no longer succeeded in preventing the intimal changes in the aorta. A close parallelism was observed between the level of the blood cholesterol and the presence of arterial lesions.

The Mitral Diastolic Murmin in Children without Mitral Value Deformity but with Severe Rheumatic Carditis and Dilatation of the Left Ventricle By PAUL D WHITE and (by invitation) Edward F Bland and T Duckett Jones, Boston, Mass

The Electrocardiogram in the Earlier Stages of Experimental Myocardial In farction By Frank N Wilson, Paul S Barker and (by invitation)
Franklin D Johnston, Ian G W Hill, and Gerald C Grout, Ann Arbor, Mich

A series of experiments was carried out in dogs in which various branches of the coronary arteries were ligated Electrocardiographic studies were made Electrocardiographic branches twenty-four hours. In addition to the standard electrocardiographic leads and serial precordial leads, direct and semi direct leads from the exposed heart were moloved.

Immediately after ligation direct leads from the region supplied by the tied vessel yielded nearly monophasic responses, similar in all respects to those obtained from a region of the ventricular surface recently injured by burning or by other means. The RS-T deviation shown by these monophasic curves rapidly diminishes but does not entirely disappear until the infarcted muscle dies some twelve or fifteen hours after ligation. The curious T wave changes that occur in the coronary occlusion in man are also seen in direct leads from the margin of the infarcted area some hours after ligation. They are apparently due to alterations in the recovery process in this region.

Hypertension with Arteriolar and Glomerular Changes in the Albino Rat Following Subtotal Nephrectomy By J Edwin Wood Jr, and (by invitation) Clayton Ethridge, University, Va

Hypertension and renal insufficiency following partial nephrectomy in rats have been reported by Chantun and Ferris. It is the primary purpose of this study to describe the histological changes in the rat kidney subjected to functional strain by subtotal nephrectomy and to investigate a possible relationship between these changes and hypertension

One hundred and eighty rats have been fed on a balanced diet. One hundred and fifty three of these have had 80 per cent of the kidney tissue removed and 27 control animals, simple laparotomy but no nephrectomy. Direct carotid blood pressure readings have been made and autopsy performed at intervals varying from 1 to 267 days. Of 153 animals with subtotal nephrectomy 68 have had 5000 pressures ranging from 70 to 139 mm. Hg. 42 from 140 to 169 mm. Hg. 32 from 170 to 199 mm. Hg, and 11 from 200 to 230 mm. Hg. The higher blood pressure levels have been found in rats with subtotal nephrectomy of 60 days duration or longer and in each instance of hypertension degenerative glomerular changes have been present. The blood pressure in 27 control rats varied between 100 and 140 mm. Hg with an average of 120 mm. Hg, a figure already fully established by Chanutin and Ferris.

During the early days of the experiment the tubules show rapid dilatation and epithelial hyperplasia with marked diffuse fatty change. This tubular fatty change is transient but reappears in localized areas at a later stuge. Early, the glomeruli are distended and enlarged but free of degeneration.

Definite glomerular involvement begins to appear at approximately 40 to 70 days after operation as shown by marked epithelial cell enlargement with subsequent vacuolar degeneration and glomerular adhesions to the capsulc. In

the older animals there is further glomerular degeneration with a gradual loss of structural detail and progression to varying degrees of hyalinization and fibrosis. Glomerular fatty degeneration is striking and begins to appear in 80 to 120 days. This is also progressive and is marked after 170 days. Fatty degeneration of the afferent arterioles has been found at still later stages. These time intervals may vary. None of the pathologic changes has been seen in the control animals.

Summary Hypertension frequently follows subtotal nephrectomy in rats Fatty degeneration in the glomeruli and afferent arterioles, glomerular atrophy and hyalinization and tubular dilatation following subtotal nephrectomy have been observed and may be interpreted as a natural sequence of hypertrophy and degeneration brought about by functional strain

The Response with Respect to Serum Volume and Composition after the Ingestion of Glucose in Diabetic Patients By F William Sunderman and (by invitation) Ennion Williams, Philadelphia, Pa

Blood was removed from diabetic patients, fasting, and one and one-half hours after the ingestion of glucose The increase in the glucose concentration in the serum per kilogram of water was found to be accompanied by a decrease in the chloride concentration in approximately the ratio of 38 mM to 1 the assumption be made that the solids of the serum, excepting glucose and chloride, are constant and on this basis the amounts of glucose, water, and chloride per unit of the remaining solids are calculated before and after the administration of glucose, it is found that the increase in the glucose is accompanied by an increase in both water and chloride. The solution transferred to the serum with the glucose is a hypotonic saline solution of an average chloride concentration of 60 mM per kilogram of water, but with the addition of the glucose, it has on the average a higher osmolar concentration than the serum The final result, therefore, is an increase in the glucose concentration in the serum a decrease in the chloride concentration, an increase in the total osmotic pressure, and an increase in the serum volume. This would indicate that in the serum of the diabetic patient the disturbance resulting from the uptake of glucose is distributed among at least three other variables -serum volume, osmotic pressure and chloride concentration

THE DIURNAL RHYTHM IN WATER AND MINERAL EXCHANGE 1

By ROBERT C MANCHESTER

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(Received for publication May 16 1933)

1

In the course of investigations on total mineral and water exchange in epileptic children (1), a diurnal rhythm in the excretion of water and certain minerals was regularly encountered, which persisted even under stringently abnormal metabolic conditions. Recently, these observations have been confirmed and further elaborated in a series of studies on two mild epileptic patients and one normal male subject.

It is common knowledge that urine is excreted in larger amounts during the day than at night, and that the increased urine volume of the day is associated with a negative water balance, counterbalanced at night by a positive balance due to a decrease in urine output. Associated with the period of retention, Simpson (2) found that an increase occurred in urinary hydrogen ion concentration, titratable acidity and ammonia, while chloride excretion fell below that of the day period

Norn (3) gave subjects equal amounts of food and water at three hour intervals throughout the day and night. The excretion of sodium, potassium and chloride was found to be lower at night than during the day, reaching a minimum between 3 00 A M and 6 00 A M and a maximum between 12 00 noon and 3 00 P M. The rhythm seemed to be dependent on the degree of activity. It was reversed when the subject slept through the day and worked through the night period.

Other papers have appeared in the literature dealing with the excretion of various urinary constituents over day and night periods but as far as the author is aware a composite study is not available which includes gross water exchange and the more important urinary elements

PLAN OF STUDY AND METHODS

The greater part of the data to be presented has been selected from a series of investigations on two mildly epileptic male children carried out over a period of forty consecutive experimental days

No convulsions occurred throughout the entire study

Except for changes induced every effort was made to maintain the environ mental and metabolic conditions as constant as possible not only from day to

¹ This investigation was aided by a grant from the Research Fund of the Rockefeller Foundation

day, but also for each period of the day. The subjects were kept in bed under sufficient bed covers to prevent chilling or sensible perspiration. Room temperature and relative humidity were recorded every two hours. Humidity ranged from 40 to 80 per cent and room temperature from 22° to 25° C, only occasionally rising high enough to induce sensible perspiration in the axilla. Activity was regulated and recorded by a trained nurse in constant attendance.

Each day was divided into four periods of six hours beginning at 6 00 A M At the beginning of each period, the subject voided, was weighed on scales sensitive to five grams and was then given an accurately prepared meal of

known weight and composition

The four meals of the twenty-four hour period were identical in every respect and were prepared by a trained attendant in an adjoining kitchen from simple foods such as powdered milk, 40 per cent cream, lactose, egg yolk, sodium chloride, and distilled water. A sufficient quantity of lactose and powdered milk was obtained to meet the needs of the entire study, thus reducing variations in the diet to a minimum. That metabolic and mineral requirements were adequately met is indicated by the uniformity in mineral and water excretion during control periods. The ketogenic antiketogenic ratio of the metabolic mixture was slightly below unity.

Water balances were calculated by the method suggested by Newburgh, Johnston, and Falcon-Lesses (4) The subjects were in nitrogen equilibrium and the caloric value of the food intake was approximately equivalent to the caloric requirement so that non-oxidation water freed by the catabolism of body tissue or stored with any protein or fat deposited in the body was disregarded "Total water available" includes drinking water, preformed water of the foods, and water of oxidation of the metabolic mixture "Total water loss" includes water of the urine, water of the feces, and water lost insensibly

by way of the skin and respiratory tract

The water content of the urine and foods was determined by weighing 5 to 15 gram samples before and after desiccation in vacuo over sulphuric acid The nitrogen of the foods, urine, and feces was determined by the Kjeldahl method (5) Urinary chloride was determined by the Vohlhard method (5), inorganic phosphate by the method of Fiske and Subbarow (6), sulphate by the method of Fishe (7), titratable acidity by the method of Folin (8) and ammonia by the permutit method of Folin and Bell (9) For the other mineral analyses urines were first ashed by treating with small amounts of nitric, perchloric, and sulphuric acids Using the ashed specimens, sodium was determined by the method of Barber and Kolthoff (10), calcium by the gasometric method of Van Slyke and Sendroy (11), potassium by the method of Shohl and Bennett (12), and magnesium by a method adapted by the author which was based upon the precipitation of magnesium as magnesium ammonium phosphate and the measurement of the phosphate radicle by the Fiske and All samples of blood were drawn under oil without Subbarow method (6) venous stasis

Unless otherwise stated, the subject followed a definite routine of activity consisting of games, reading and regulated naps from 6 00 A M to 6 00 P M, and slept from 6 00 P M to 6 00 A M except for interruptions resulting from the experimental routine. Since identical meals were taken at equal intervals throughout the day and night, all variables except activity and sleep and the resulting metabolic factors were reduced to a minimum

² Klim

RESULTS OF EXPERIMENTS

Diurnal rhythm under standard metabolic conditions

The diurnal variations regularly encountered are clearly demonstrated in Table I In Part I, a negative water balance is noted during the day period and a positive balance at night, dependent largely on the fluctuation in urine volume. Associated with the negative balance, urine volume, and urinary sodium, potassium, and chloride excretion reaches a maximum, while during the positive water balance of the night period, excretion falls to a minimum. A similar less significant rhythm occurs in titratable acidity, and phosphate, sulphate, and ammonia. "Total inorganic acid" and "total base" is greater during the day than at night. The difference is obviously largely dependent on the sodium, potassium and chloride fractions. Nitrogen excretion and body temperature are greater in the daytime than at night. Insensible perspiration shows no constant variation.

In a more detailed experiment presented in Part II in which the day is divided into six hour periods, the same diurnal rhythm is demonstrated. The negative water balance, urine volume, and sodium, potassium, and chloride excretion reach a maximum in the morning period from 6.00 A M to 12.00 noon and begin to decline in the afternoon. Excretion decreases sharply through the night and reaches a minimum in the period from 12.00 midnight to 6.00 A M coincident with the period of greatest water retention.

In Table II, the data of Table I, Part I, have been recalculated to show the variation in concentration of the more important urinary constituents in day and night specimens. The molar concentration of those substances showing only a slight diurnal rhythm, namely phosphate, sulphate, and ammonia increases slightly in the night urine. In the case of sodium, potassium, and chloride, the decrease in exerction during the night is parallel to a decrease in urine volume so that no regular change in the molar concentration of these elements occurs. Fluctuations in the total molar concentration of the inorganic ions are insignificant and the higher specific gravity of the night urine is due largely to an increase in the molar concentration of the nitrogenous substances, of which urea is the most important.

The marked diurnal fluctuations in urinary sodium, potassium, and chloride excretion suggest the possibility of a corresponding change in the quantity of these elements in the blood. Unfortunately, only one experiment bearing on this point was carried out.

The results, presented in Table III show no significant change in serum sodium or chloride in spite of a wide difference in urinary sodium and chloride excretion between the day and night period. Considered as a single experiment, no conclusions can be drawn. The results, however, are in accord with those of Norn (3)

The diurnal rhythm in water balance and the excretion of urinary constituents under standard conditions HD, age 5 years Weight 20 kgm

| | | | <u>'</u> | Wate | Water balanco | | | | | | | | | రి | Composition of urine | of urin | 01 | | | | | |
|--|--|----------------------|----------|--------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|---|-------------------|--------------------------|-------------------|--------------------------|----------------------|------------|-----------------------|-----------------|------------|--------------------------|-------------------|--------------------------------|
| Time | Activity | Body tem perature | | Total T | | | II;O of insen rible | Vol | Spe- | Nitro | | Inorganic aeld | ie aeld | | Titra | | Inor | Іпогдавіс в 180 | 150 | | | Total Inorganio |
| | | | | ; | lors | ance | 2 | ume | Br.v Ity | gen | נו | PO. | 50° | Total | table acidity | Na | 4 | చ్ | Mg | Total | ii X | NIIs+ titratable acidity |
| | | | | grams g | grame | grams | grams | ઇ | | ртатв | 01/u | o1/u | 01/n | 01/u | cc n/10 | α n/10 | υ/μ υ/10 | ος π/10 | n/10 | 20/ ₁₁ | 01/и ээ | cc. n/10 |
| PART 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6 A M - 6 P M 6 P M - 6 A M 6 A M - 6 A M | Active Sleeping | 37 5 3 | 37.2 | 751 730 1490 | 130 617 1547 | -170 +122 - 57 | 400 390 790 | 573 210 742 | 1 015 1 025 | 3 41 3 37 6 78 | 318 122 470 | 271 260 531 | 170 313 | 789 525 1311 | 168 154 323 | 248 360 | 181 75 256 | 48 47 95 | 122 | 488 246 714 | 157 138 295 | 813 539 1351 |
| 6 1 M - 6 PM 6 P M - 6 1 M 6 A M - 6 A M | Activo Sleeping | 37.1 | 333 | 751 739 1490 | 907 589 1496 | 1+1 | 270 317 596 | 87. 87. | 1 010 | 8 3 6 3 4 3 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 | 315 137 453 | 255 247 502 | 173 137 310 | 743 521 1264 | 152 145 297 | 320 32 | 180 78 258 | 228 | 855 855 | 436 258 694 | 158 157 315 | 746 560 1306 |
| Part II | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | - | - | - | | |
| 0 A M - 13 N 12 A - 6 P M 6 P M - 12 M N 12 M N - 6 A M | Activo Activo Sleeping Sleeping | 37.2 37.5 30.8 | | 375 375 360 360 | 35.45 | 11++ | | 162 231 | 1 015 1 013 1 016 | 1 68 1 69 1 54 1 54 | 221022 | 135 146 126 138 | 3322 | 369 327 283 278 | 82228 | 8368 | 119 91 48 47 | ដដូដូដ | מימטוטו | 226 182 118 102 | 8888 | 352 335 251 248 |

TABLE II

Companson of the molar concentration of urmary consistuents in day and might periods. Urea is calculated as 80 per cent of the urmary nitrogen H D, age 5 years. Weight 20 kgm

| | Urea con- Total con centration centration | M per luter 199 357 465 670 | 168 294 356 548 |
|----------------|--|-----------------------------------|------------------------------|
| | NHs con- centration | M per luter 028 058 | 024 058 |
| | Total Concen- tration | M per luter 086 098 | 060 |
| 8 | Mg Concen tration | M per lutr 004 010 | 003 010 |
| Inorganio base | Concer- tration | 'ৰ | 000 |
| I | Concen tration | M per luter 034 034 | 031 |
| | Na Concen- tration | M per liter 047 051 | 033 |
| | Total Concentration | M per luter 044 049 | 036 044 |
| Inorgania acid | S Concen- tration | M per luter 002 004 | 903 |
| Inorga | Concen tration | M per liter 007 017 | 000 014 |
| | Concen tration | M per lutar 035 028 | 028 027 |
| | Specific | 1 015 1 025 | 1 010 1 021 |
| | Yolume | 6. 523 219 | 253 |
| | Time | 6 A M -6 P M 6 P M -6 A M | 6 P M -6 P M 6 P M -6 A.M |

RCM Comparison of urmary sodium and chloride exerction with the level of sodium and chloride in the blood serum in day and night periods age 25 years. Weight 63 kgm TABLE III

| | | | | | | | | | | | | Ì |
|--------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|------------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------|---------------------|------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| | | W | Water balance | ince | | ر | Urine | | | Blood serum | era a | |
| Activity | Time | Total water avail able | Total water lost | Balance | Balance Volume | Specific gravity | Na | .4 | ŭ | Time | RA B | D D |
| Active Sleeping | 6 P M -6 P M 6 P M -6 A M | grams 1548 1548 | grams 1854 1237 | grams -306 +311 | " 1111 723 | 1 014 | mgm 1500 1070 | mgm 2033 853 | m£m 3442 1476 | 12 noon 12 midnight | mem 321 326 | mgm 354 350 |

The effect of activity on the diurnal rhythm was studied in a short experiment presented in Table IV. On the second day, the routine was altered so that the subject remained inactive, but awake, lying quietly on his back, from 6 00 A M to 12 00 noon. In spite of the reduced activity, the usual matutinal rise in urine volume, and sodium, potassium, and chloride excretion occurred. He was allowed to sleep as usual from 6 00 P M to 12 00 midnight but was kept awake and active from midnight to 6 00 A M. Coincident with the resumption of activity, water balance became negative, and urine volume, sodium, potassium, and chloride excretion increased. The subsequent sleeping period from 6 00 A M to 12 00 noon was unsatisfactory because of restlessness on the part of the subject. Urine and mineral excretion remained at about the same level as in the preceding period, but in spite of this they increased in the subsequent period in which normal activity was resumed.

Although the experiment is not entirely satisfactory, the results are in accord with those of Norn (3) who was able to reverse the rhythm in subjects working at night and sleeping by day

The diurnal rhythm under abnormal metabolic conditions

A few experiments which were made under abnormal experimental conditions are presented in order to demonstrate the tenacity with which the rhythm is maintained even under extreme metabolic conditions

The data presented in Part I of Table V are selected from a period in which ingestion of water was being forced. In spite of the large urine output, the volume of urine of the day exceeds that of the night period and the diurnal fluctuation in sodium and chloride excretion persists

Even in a state of dehydration, as shown in Part II of Table V, the maximum water and mineral loss was found to occur in the day period Urine volume, potassium, and chloride excretion reached a maximum during the day and the negative water balance of the day exceeded that of the night period Sodium balance may be temporarily reversed, the excretion of the night period exceeding that of the day as it was found to be on the second day of the experiment

The results of a fasting period of two days duration are presented in Table VI. The usual rhythm in water balance, chloride, and sodium excretion was maintained and the small variations in phosphate and sulphate noted under normal conditions were more pronounced. Nocturnal excretion of potassium, ammonia, and titratable acidity was increased on the second day of fasting to the point at which it exceeded that of the day. Sodium, potassium, and chloride were stored during the recovery period. In spite of the demand of the body for the replenishment of depleted stores, the diurnal rhythm in excretion of these substances persisted.

N F age 10 years Weight 27 kgm The effect of changes in the routine of sleep and activity on the diurnal rhythm TABLE IV

| 2 M2 211 I | ו ער כון כנו ען בוושנוצני ווא ווא ומחוניים כן אנכוף מוום מבווניין עוד ווי | | in Jan | Carana I | | | | | | - 11 | | | |
|--|---|---------------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------------|
| | | W. | Water balance | nce | | | | Urine | | | | | |
| Time | Activity | Total water avail able | Total water loss | Вагапсе | Volume | Specific gravity | Nitrogen | ច | ę, | s | Na | .4 | Body tem perature |
| 6 A M – 6 P M 6 P M – 6 A M | Active Sleeping | grams 833 832 | grams 1093 736 | £rams -260 +96 | ec 843 503 | 1 009 1 013 | grams 4 19 3 38 | mgm 1795 414 | #### 435 380 | 390 303 | m¢m 1024 207 | mgm 712 350 | Ü |
| 6 A M -12 N 12 N - 6 P M 6 P M -12 MN 12 MN - 6 A M | Flat on back Awake quiet Active Sleeping Active | 416 416 416 416 | 519 506 360 456 | -103 - 90 +116 - 15 | 426 329 257 341 | 1 013 1 012 1 012 1 013 | 2 19 1 98 1 64 2 16 | 1045 570 171 446 | 178 168 140 161 | 221 240 173 212 | 702 316 87 266 | 480 390 187 357 | 368 37.2 37.2 37 |
| 6 A M - 12 N 12 N - 6 P M 6 P M - 12 M N 12 M N - 6 A M | Sleeping Active Sleeping Sleeping | 416 416 416 416 | 433 491 432 380 | - 17 - 75 - 16 + 36 | 310 333 253 278 | 1 012 1 010 1 013 1 011 | 2 25 2 28 1 77 1 88 | 400 586 291 259 | 185 182 147 162 | 260 278 193 239 | 228 280 179 131 | 339 493 246 291 | 37 5 37 4 37 2 37 1 |

H D, age 5 years Weight 20 kgm The instance of diuresis and dehydration on the diurnal rhythm

| 12 L, uge 3 years weight 20 kgm | Urine | Specific Ritrogen NA K CI NII, table ranvity | Srams cc n/10 cc n/10 cc n/10 cc n/10 cc n/10 | | 1 006 3 68 139 274 173 1 004 3 07 97 110 148 | | 1 010 3 43 206 180 315 158 152 1 021 2 96 120 78 137 157 115 | 1 030 3 55 198 196 295 131 157 1 035 3 33 238 111 236 106 160 | 1 034 3 71 321 263 400 104 117 1038 3 81 247 172 217 105 165 |
|--|---------------|--|---|-----------------|--|----------------------|--|---|--|
| armin | | Balance Volume | grams | Part I Diuresis | + 67 1140 | Part II Deltydration | -156 +119 | -353 -210 | -258 - 84 |
| מוו וווכ | าไาทต | | <u> </u> | Part | | Part I. | | <u> </u> | ! |
| anion o | Water bulunce | Total water loss | grams | | 1900 1823 | H H | 907 | 561 405 | 463 |
| nem)ar | = | Total water avail | grams | | 1900 1890 | | 751 738 | 208 195 | 205 |
| 15 and | | ture | | | 37.8 | | 37 2 37 2 | 37 2 | 37 1 37 4 |
| armes | | Body tem- periture | | | 37 5 37 ‡ | | 37 1 37 3 | 37 ± 37 6 | 37 1 37 6 |
| ine injuctice of annests and denjaration on the amenat ingam | | Activity | | | Active Skeping | | Active Sleeping | Active Sleeping | Active |
| WI | | Time | | | 6 A M -6 P M 6 P M -6 A M | | 6 A M -6 P M 6 P M -6 A M | 6 A M -6 P M 6 P M -6 A M | 6 A M -6 P M 6 P M -6 A M |

The effect of fasting on the diurnal rhythm $\,\,N\,\,$ R age 10 years $\,\,$ Weight 27 kgm

| | | Wat | Water balance | 8 | | | | | | | | Composition of urine | o notile | f urine | | | | | | |
|---|----------------------|--------------------|---------------------|---------------------------|--------------------|-------|----------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|---------------------|----------------------|-------------------|------------------|-----------|----------------|-----|--|-------------------|----------------------------|
| | Period | Total | Total | Bal | Vol. | | Nitro | - | Inorganic acid | ic acid | | | Titra | <u> </u> | Inorg | Inorganic base | 9 | _ | , | Inorganic |
| | | avall | lost | ance | ume | grav | Ben | ຽ | PO | 105 | Total | E S | E acl | , e | × | రో | Mg | Total | i i | titratable acidity +NHs |
| | | grams | grams | grams | ಜ | | 27.0773 | 22 | 277 | 2/10 | 2/2 | 207 | 25 | 20/2 | 45° | 1,00 | 85 | 85 | 201/2 | ot/u 22 |
| 6 P M A A M M M M M M M M M M M M M M M M | Fast | 906 905 1811 | 1195 723 1918 | -289 +182 -107 | 962 484 1446 | 1 010 | 3 63 2 88 6 51 | 344 50 394 | 252 142 394 | 202 127 329 | 798 319 1117 | 44 | 202 | 2228 | 322 | 988 | 825 | 2522 | 1201 | 783 350 1133 |
| A M M | Fast | 914 913 1827 | 1081 874 1955 | 1,39 | 852 675 1527 | 1 000 | 3 81 3 59 7 40 | 54.52 54.52 | 268 170 438 | 888 | 85 4 E | 5882 | 213 230 443 | 186 220 | 233 | នននិ | r-4 | 842 845 | 162 | 829 758 1587 |
| P M P M | Stand ard diet | 838 837 1675 | 1054 692 1746 | -216 +145 - 71 | 703 378 1081 | 1011 | 4 36 9 23 | 197 292 | 281 207 488 | 223 178 407 | 702 1187 1187 | N N | 317 | H HH | 152 Z Z Z | 888 | 505 | # 138 138 138 138 138 138 138 138 138 138 | 220 430 430 | 745 489 1234 |
| A.M A.M | Stand ard diet | 833 832 1665 | 927 630 1557 | 1 5 5 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 1 0 8 | 723 398 1121 | 1013 | 4 10 3 59 7 69 | 254 136 390 | 235 215 450 | 2528 | 2515 21208 | | 253₹ | 136 187 | 5223 | 282 | 282 | 25.28 | 398 | 674 489 1163 |
| AMA | Stand ard diet | 833 833 1665 | 1108 564 1672 | -275 +268 - 7 | 780 418 1198 | 1 009 | 3 99 3 33 7 32 | 518 518 | 239 189 428 | 348 | 839 455 1294 | <u> </u> | 133 | 282 39 321 | 23,24 | 1360 | 222 | 45 55 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 | 163 | 858 436 1294 |

* No allowance was made for water freed through the catabolism of body glycogen Preformed water freed by the tabolism of body protein and fat was calculated by the method suggested by Newburgh, Johnston, and Falcon Lesses (4)

The results of a study of a three day fast contained in Table VII show the same fluctuation in water, urine volume and sodium as in Table VI Potassium balance was reversed on the second day of fasting, the excretion of the night period exceeding that of the day The ability of the body to conserve base to replace depleted stores was strikingly

TABLE VII

The influence of a three-day fast and subsequent recovery period, on the diurnal rhythm

J R, age 15 years Weight 40 kgm

| | | w | ater bala | nce | | Sod | lum | Potas | ssium |
|--|-----------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|---------------------------|
| Time | Period | Total water avuil able* | Total water lost | Balance | Urine volume | Intake | Urine | Intake | Urine |
| 6 A M -6 P M 6 P M -6 A M 6 A M -6 A M | Fasting | grams 1140 1140 2280 | grams 1745 1030 2775 | grams -605 +110 -495 | 225 675 1900 | mgm | mgm 2795 1305 4100 | mgm | mgm 942 503 1445 |
| 6 A M -6 P M 6 P M -6 A M 6 A M -6 A M | Fasting | 1050 1050 2100 | 1510 1200 2710 | -460 -150 -610 | 942 800 1742 | | 1141 790 1931 | | 332 823 1155 |
| 6 A M -6 P M 6 P M -6 A M 6 A M -6 A M | Fasting | 1040 1020 2060 | 1460 1070 2530 | -420 - 50 -470 | 807 690 1497 | | 890 400 1290 | | 1242 1066 2308 |
| 6 A M -6 P M 6 P M -6 A M 6 A M -6 A M | Stand- ard diet | 910 910 1820 | 1020 1110 2130 | -110 -200 -310 | 565 490 1055 | 230 230 460 | 80 80 | 610 610 1220 | 562 94 656 |
| 6 A M -6 P M 6 P M -6 A M 6 A M -6 A M | Stand- ard diet | 910 910 1820 | 880 790 1670 | + 30 +120 +150 | 365 405 770 | 230 230 460 | | 610 610 1220 | 143 61 204 |

^{*} Preformed water freed by the catabolism of body protein and fat was calculated by the method suggested by Newburgh, Johnston, and Falcon-Lesses (4)

demonstrated during the recovery period. Sodium almost disappeared from the urine. Potassium although diminished was excreted in larger quantities during the day than at night. Whatever the factors may be controlling the diurnal fluctuations, it is obvious that each element may be selectively influenced by other more fundamental physiological mechanisms, in this case, the demand of the organism for sodium to replenish depleted stores.

DISCUSSION

The foregoing experiments furnish proof of a well established diurnal rhythm in water balance, urine volume, urinary sodium, potassium, and

chloride excretion, and specific gravity The small fluctuations noted in urinary phosphate, sulphate, titratable acidity, and ammonia are of questionable significance, although there is almost uniformly a larger excretion of all these solutes during the day than at night No significant change in calcium or magnesium occurs. The increased specific gravity of the night urine specimen is due largely to the nitrogenous fraction in spite of the fact that the total amount of urinary nitrogen excreted is slightly smaller during the night

As a rule the negative water balance, urine volume, and urinary sodium, potassium, and chloride output reach a maximum in the morning period from 6 00 A M to 12 00 noon, decline in the afternoon, and decrease sharply at night, water balance becoming positive, and volume of urine, and sodium, potassium and chloride excretion reaching a minimum in the period from 12 00 midnight to 6 00 A M, which is coincident with the period of greatest water retention. The results obtained are at variance with those of Norn (3) who found that the period of maximum excretion occurred from 12 00 noon to 3 00 P M. They are in accord with those of Simpson (2) who observed a large matutinal increase in urinary volume and chloride after waking

Under standard experimental conditions the rhythm is tenaciously maintained, although in abnormal conditions, such as dehydration and fasting, various constituents may be specifically influenced, for example sodium in dehydration and potassium in fasting

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Based on the fact that potassium is limited almost exclusively to intracellular fluid and sodium to extracellular fluid, Gamble, Ross, and Tisdall (13) have considered changes in potassium as indicative of changes

The residence a study of a three day fast contained in Table VII the same fluctuation in water, urine volume and sodium as in Table VII Ports are balance was reversed on the second day of fasting, the contained the might period exceeding that of the day. The ability of the best to conserve base to replace depleted stores was strikingly

TABLE VII

The 12 for a fire da fast and subsequent recovery period, on the diurnal rhythm

J. R., age 15 years. Weight 40 kgm

| and the particular international confidence of the particular intern | | " | iter bila | nce | | Sodi | lum | Potas | sium |
|--|----------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|---------------------------|
| 7 | Pc +1 | To all uster avail able* | Total water lost | Balance | Urine volume | Intake | Urine | Intake | Urine |
| (\ \ \ \ -6 \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ | Insting | 1140 1140 2280 | 1745 1030 2775 | #rams -605 +110 -495 | cc 1225 675 1900 | mgm | mem 2795 1305 4100 | mgm | mgm 942 503 1445 |
| 6 1 11 - 6 P M 6 P M - 6 1 M 6 1 11 - 6 1 M | Fasting | 1050 1050 2100 | 1510 1200 2710 | -460 -150 -610 | 942 800 1742 | | 1141 790 1931 | | 332 823 1155 |
| 6 1 M -6 P M 6 P M -6 1 M 6 1 M -6 1 M | Fasting | 1040 1020 2060 | 1460 1070 2530 | -420 - 50 -470 | 807 690 1497 | | 890 400 1290 | | 1242 1066 2308 |
| 6 a M -6 P M 6 P M -6 3 M 6 1 M -6 a M | Stand ard diet | 910 910 1820 | 1020 1110 2130 | -110 -200 -310 | 565 490 1055 | 230 230 460 | 80 80 | 610 610 1220 | 562 94 656 |
| (1 M - 6 P M (P M - 6 1 M 6 3 M - 6 1 M | S and ard det | 910 910 1820 | 880 790 1670 | + 30 +120 +150 | 365 405 770 | 230 230 460 | | 610 610 1220 | 143 61 204 |

^{*} Preformed vater freed by the catabolism of body protein and fat was calculated by the method suggested by Newburgh, Johnston, and Falcon-Ir (64)

d monstrated during the recovery period. Sodium almost disappeared from the urine. Potassium although diminished was excreted in larger quantities during the day than at night. Whatever the factors may be controling the diurnal fluctuations, it is obvious that each element may be extracted influenced by other more fundamental physiological mechanism, in this case, the demand of the organism for sodium to replenish deplaced somes.

DISCUSSION

To ferere up experiments furnish proof of a well established diurnal and after balance, unne volume, urinary sodium, potassium, and

chloride excretion, and specific gravity The small fluctuations noted in urinary phosphate, sulphate, titratable acidity, and ammonia are of questionable significance, although there is almost uniformly a larger excretion of all these solutes during the day than at night No significant change in calcium or magnesium occurs. The increased specific gravity of the night urine specimen is due largely to the nitrogenous fraction in spite of the fact that the total amount of urinary nitrogen excreted is slightly smaller during the night

As a rule the negative water balance, urine volume, and urinary sodium, potassium, and chloride output reach a maximum in the morning period from 6 00 A M to 12 00 noon, decline in the afternoon, and decrease sharply at night, water balance becoming positive, and volume of urine, and sodium, potassium, and chloride excretion reaching a minimum in the period from 12 00 midnight to 6.00 A M, which is coincident with the period of greatest water retention. The results obtained are at variance with those of Norn (3) who found that the period of maximum excretion occurred from 12 00 noon to 3 00 P M. They are in accord with those of Simpson (2) who observed a large matutinal increase in urinary volume and chloride after waking

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in intracellular water and changes in sodium as corresponding to those affecting extracellular water. Since sodium and potassium both take part in the diurnal rhythm, it may be assumed that both intra- and extracellular water and minerals enter into the changes noted.

In general the fluctuations recorded seem to be dependent more on the difference in the state of consciousness, as between sleeping and waking, than upon variations in the degree of physical activity. Although it is dangerous to draw conclusions from a single experiment, the data presented in Table IV would tend to minimize the importance of the latter. On the second experimental day, in spite of the fact that the subject remained quiet and inactive flat on his back from 6.00 A.M. to 12.00 noon, the usual matutinal increases in urine volume, chloride, sodium, and to a lesser extent potassium, occurred, whereas with the resumption of normal activity in the subsequent period from 12.00 noon to 6.00 P.M., excretion was materially diminished. The results are in accord with those of Norn (3) who found the rhythm was uninfluenced by wide differences in muscular activity

The mechanism involved remains obscure Since the subjects were fed equal meals throughout the twenty-four hour period, differences in intake are excluded unless it be discovered that sleep interferes with intestinal absorption. That such is not the case is indicated by the fact that the rhythm persists in fasting

The variations in the metabolic rate between sleeping and the waking state could account for only minor fluctuations. In the experiments recorded, the metabolic rate, estimated from the metabolism tables of Atwater and Benedict, was usually approximately 15 to 20 per cent higher during the day from 6 00 A M to 6 00 P M than at night. Such an increase obviously provides for excretion of larger amounts of minerals and water of hydration and oxidation of catabolized substances during the day than at night. The difference in regard to water, however, amounts to only a few cubic centimeters and is insufficient to account for the large diurnal rhythm noted. Further evidence of independence of metabolic rate has been presented in Table IV in which the usual matutinal increases occurred in spite of the fact that the subject remained flat on his back and inactive, whereas in the subsequent period, when with the resumption of normal activity the metabolic rate increased, the values for urine volume and mineral excretion decreased.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

1 There is a diurnal rhythm in mineral and water balance characterized by the facts that urine volume and urinary sodium, potassium, and chloride excretion are greater during the day than at night. The larger urine volume of the day period is associated with a negative water balance, counterbalanced at night by a decreased urine volume and

positive water balance Only slight fluctuations are noted in urinary phosphate, sulphate, titratable acidity, and ammonia, although there is almost uniformly a larger excretion of all these solutes during the day than at night No significant shift in calcium and magnesium occurs "Total inorganic acid" and "total base" excretion are greater during the day than at night, due largely to the sodium, potassium, and chloride fractions

- 2 The negative water balance, urine volume, and urinary sodium, potassium, and chloride output reach a maximum in the morning period from 6.00 AM to 12.00 noon, decline in the afternoon, and fall off sharply at night, water balance becoming positive, and sodium, potassium. and chloride excretion reaching a minimum from 12 00 midnight to 6 00 A M, coincident with the period of greatest water retention
- 3 The rise in the specific gravity of the night urine is due largely to an increase in the molar concentration of the nitrogenous fraction, in spite of the fact that the total amount of urinary nitrogen excreted is slightly diminished during the night
- 4 A rough parallelism exists between water balance and urinary sodium, potassium, and chloride excretion The negative water balance of the day period coincides with the period of maximum sodium, potas sium, and chloride excretion and the positive water balance of the night period coincides with the period of minimum excretion. The largest negative water balance and sodium, potassium, and chloride excretion occur together from 6 00 A M to 12 00 noon and the largest positive balance and smallest excretion from 12 00 midnight to 6 00 A M
- 5 Since sodium and potassium both take part in the diurnal rhythm, it may be assumed that both intra and extracellular water and mineral metabolism contribute to the changes observed
- 6 Either urinary sodium or potassium excretion may be specifically influenced in abnormal metabolic conditions. In dehydration the diurnal rhythm in sodium is temporarily reversed with night excretion exceeding that of the day period, while in fasting potassium may be reversed
- 7 The mechanism involved in maintaining such a constant rhythm seems to be dependent upon the difference between the sleeping and waking states of consciousness rather than upon changes in the degree of physical activity, although the influence of the latter has not been adequately excluded

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THE EFFECT OF SPLENIC CONTRACTION ON THE FORMED ELEMENTS OF THE BLOOD IN A CASE OF ANEMIA AND SPLENOMEGALY

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(Received for publication June 17 1933)

The function of the spleen as a reservoir for the formed elements of the blood is a comparatively recent conception. Experimental studies have dealt principally with the number of erythrocytes stored or static in the splenic pulp and have neglected other equally significant cellular elements. Such studies moreover have been almost entirely made upon animals and the application of the results to problems of human physiology has not been proven

Stukeley (1) suggested in 1723 that the spleen manifested relaxation and active muscular contraction Gray (2) in 1854 mentioned the function of the spleen as that of a safety valve ' for the storage of blood apart from the general circulation. Roy was the first physiologist to observe the actual rhythmic movements and contraction of the spleen in laboratory animals (3) His work was confirmed in 1896 by Schafer and Moore who also demonstrated the innervation of the organ (4) The present day views of the function of the spleen as a blood reservoir are largely due to the work of Barcroft and his associates (5) Barcroft brought the spleens of dogs out through a slit in the abdominal wall and left them in this position for considerable periods of time protected only by saline dressings With these preparations he demonstrated the rhyth mic movements of the spleen and also the active contraction after various stimuli such as heat exercise and emotion. It was shown in later experi ments that the spleen of the dog contracts to one half or one third of its normal size during exercise and to an even greater extent after severe hemorrhage or the death of the animal His work with carbon monoxide has clearly demonstrated that the spleen serves as a reservoir of red blood corpuscles

Many studies have been made on the hemoglobin content and the erythrocyte count of blood expelled from the spleen both during active contraction and while the organ was quiescent. Consistent results have not been obtained. In some cases identical values were obtained for blood from the splenic artery and vein. Cruickshank (6) working in Barcroft's laboratory by cannulizing the inferior mesenteric vein col-

lected blood during contractions of the spleen. At the same time he measured the contraction of the spleen and the quantity of blood expelled. From experiments of this nature he determined that the blood expelled was often richer in hemoglobin than was the blood of the general circulation. The concentration of hemoglobin varied during the contraction, the maximum value being 20 to 40 per cent higher than that of the normal peripheral blood. The amount of blood expelled from the spleen by a single contraction was estimated to be 2 6 to 5 6 per cent of the total blood volume of the animal

An opportunity for the detailed study of the spleen as a reservoir of blood was presented to us in a patient in which there was an anemia and splenomegaly. The spleen in this patient was easily demonstrable and could be visualized by the x-ray. It was observed that the spleen invariably contracted following the intravenous injection of liver extract, a therapeutic measure instituted with a view to relieving the anemia. The present paper deals with the changes in the number and character of the formed blood elements which took place during the splenic contractions induced by this and other methods.

METHODS

The general plan was to study the character and cellular composition of the peripheral blood before and after the induced contraction of the spicen, and to compare these findings with the changes in the size of the organ, as determined by x-ray

Blood samples were taken by venipuncture both before and after the splenic contraction. The red and white corpuscles were enumerated in the Hemoglobin determinations were made by the usual way in these samples Sahli acid hematin method, using calibrated tubes and standards corpuscular volume of the erythrocytes was determined with the Wintrobe hematocrit tube Enumeration of the blood platelets was then done on blood obtained from a freely bleeding puncture of the ear lobe. Three per cent sodium citrate solution prepared freshly every day was used as a diluting fluid in the red corpuscle pipette. Great care was exercised to keep the sodium citrate solution and all the glassware free from dust and dirt. Fragility tests of the red corpuscles were done by the usual method, using sodium chloride solutions in dilutions varying from 0.52 to 0.28 per cent Controls were made on normal bloods at each determination. Blood volume determinations by the vital red method of Rowntree (7) were made before and after splenic con tractions X-rays of the spleen were taken before the injection and at regular intervals following the contractions The surface area of the splenic shadow was measured on these x-rays with a Keuffel and Esser planimeter upper pole of the spleen could not be definitely outlined therefore identical points were taken on the ribs from which measurements were made

OBSERVATIONS

Clinical summary. The patient a 55 year old Puerto Rican woman entered the hospital complaining of attacks of diarrhea and abdominal discomfort of four and a half years duration. A diagnosis of spruc had been

made fifteen years ago while the patient was a resident of Puerto Rico Following her arrival in this country thirteen years ago the diarrhea ceased and the patient gained weight. There was no history of yellow fever, typhoid or malaria.

The present illness began about four and a half years ago when the patient noticed five or six loose bowel movements a day. These attacks lasted about three weeks and occurred once or twice a year. An abdominal mass was noticed on the left side of her abdomen three years ago. Six months before entry the patient noticed shortness of breath and pallor. Three months later a local doctor found a severe anemia and transfused the patient. Following this the patient improved and was well until one month before entry, when her diarrhea and abdominal discomfort returned. At the same time her pallor was again noticed and she became short of breath on evertion.

Physical examination The patient was markedly emaciated and had moderate pallor of her skin and mucous membranes. No lymphadenopathy was present. The heart and lungs were normal. The abdomen was moderately distended. A large hard mass was palpated on the left side of the abdomen. The lower edge of the mass extended to the level of the umbilicus the medial edge extended to the mid abdominal line. A notch was felt in this medial border. The red blood count was 3 240 000 hemoglobin 71 per cent white cell count 1 250. The differential counts done with Wright's stained smears and by the supravital technique showed no abnormal cells. The fragility of the red blood cells was within normal limits. Gastric analysis showed no free hydrochloric acid after histamine expression.

For the treatment of the anemia liver extract was given intravenously. During the first injection which was of twenty minutes durition the pitient complained of severe abdominal pain localized over the splenic aren. Nausea and vomiting promptly occurred. Toward the end of the injection marked flushing of the face neck hands and arms was present. Immediately following the injection palpation of the abdomen revealed that the spleen the lower edge of which had been just below the level of the umbilicus had contracted in size until its lower edge was palpable about 10 cm below the costal margin. Moreover, whereas the spleen had been hard before injection, it was found to be very soft in consistency after the shrinkage in size. This observation suggested the studies reported in this communication. Table I represents a typical chronological protocol of these studies.

The results obtained in a typical study using liver extract by intravenous injection as a stimulant to splenic contraction are shown in Table II. From this table it is evident that without essential change in the total blood volume there was a significant increase in the formed elements of the blood following a shrinkage in the size of the splech Twenty four hours later the spleen had practically regained its original size. Figure 1 presents tracings of the splenic shadow taken from the x-rays and demonstrates the change of size of the spleen. The area of the spleen before injection was 90 3 sq. cm. Immediately after injection the spleen had contracted to an area of 32 3 sq. cm. Accompanying this contraction there was an increase of 520 000 red blood cells in the erythrocyte count. The hemoglobin increased 15 per cent. At the same time even more marked rises were found in the white count and

TABLE 1
Chronological protocol

| | om one great protocol |
|--------------|--|
| Time | Dancel |
| 2 45 | Palpation of abdomen reveals a firm hard spleen, the lower edge of |
| 2 58 | and the level of the filling the second |
| 3 00 | X-ray of spleen |
| 3 03 | First bleeding Blood pressure 120/70 |
| | Platelet count |
| 3 05 | 11 0 cc 15 per cent vital red solution given intravenously |
| 3 09 | Bleeding for blood volume |
| 3 10 | Injection of 100 cc liver extract Eli Lilly (or 20 cc Parke Davis) |
| | begun Blood pressure 122/68 |
| 3 15 | |
| | Patient complained of severe pain in abdomen, headache and nausca. |
| 3 17 | Marked flushing of face has occurred |
| 3 20 | Blood pressure 84,44 |
| 3 25 | Invote pressure 04/44 |
| 0 20 | Injection completed Spleen palpable about 20 cm below the costal |
| 3 26 | margin |
| | X-ray of spleen |
| 3 28 | Bleeding |
| 3 30 | Platelet count |
| 3 38 | 11 0 cc 1 5 per cent vital red solution given intravenously |
| 3 42 | Bleeding for blood volume |
| 3 45 | X ray of spleen |
| | ray of spleen |
| == ara rater | tran or spicery |

the platelet count, the increase of the former being 950 cells and of the latter 74,000. Determination of the blood volume after contraction of the spleen showed an increase of the total blood volume of only 200 cc. With this the plasma volume decreased from 65 to 60 per cent. I here was also a decrease in the total plasma volume. The fragility of the red cells to sodium chloride solutions was not altered after contraction of the spleen.

TIBLE II

Effects of contraction of the spleen induced by liner extract

| Before injection After injection | 3,800 4,000 | | | | 2 520 2 410 | | 65 | |
|-------------------------------------|----------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|-----------------------------------|----------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| | Total | blood volu | me ! | Total | plasma s | Hiseria | Harmap reent | |
| Before injection After injection | | 2 57 | 66 | 4500 | 1 28 | 1 28 | 138,000 | 90/60 |
| Control | 651 | 2 68 | 67 | 4850 | 1 26 | 1 25 | 152,000 | 115165 |
| After injection 24 hours later | 32 3 89 1 | 4 24 3 67 | 85 69 | 2350 1150 | 0 865 0 860 | 1 00 | 123,000 52 000 | 95/60 |
| Patient Before injection | 90 3 | 3 72 | 70 | 1400 | 0 870 | 0 950 | 49 000 | |
| 7 | sq cm | millions | per cent | | μ3 | | | |
| | Area of spleen | Red count | Hemo globin | White | Mean corpus cular volume | Color index | Hitelet count | Bloo I pres ure |

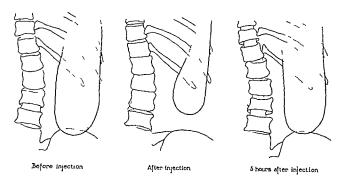


Fig 1

Shows a series of tracings taken from the vays of the spleen demonstrating the size of the spleen immediately before the injection of liver extract immediately after contraction had occurred and 5 hours later at which time the spleen had practically regained its original size

A study of the formed elements of the blood following the injection of liver extract intravenously into a control patient with anemia, but without splenomegaly is also included in Table II. It is evident from these results that there was no appreciable alteration in these elements following this injection. Results similar to those found in Table II have been obtained repeatedly following the intravenous injection of liver extract into the patient with splenomegaly. The degree of contraction of the spleen and the changes in the formed elements of the blood have varied directly with the degree of contraction obtained in each study. The observations presented here are neither the maximal nor the minimal results obtained but are taken as the most typical

The combined results of the alterations of the formed elements in the peripheral blood obtained after induced splenic contraction in five studies in which liver extract was used as the stimulant are presented in Table III. The average splenic contraction as shown was from a surface area of 93 6 sq. cm. to an area of 50 0 sq. cm. This is a decrease in the size of the spleen to 53 per cent of its original size. The average increase in the erythrocyte count after contraction was 500 000 red cells or an increase of 13 9 per cent. Together with this the hemoglobin increase in this series was 10 per cent, or an average increase of 13 7 per cent of the original average hemoglobin value. The white blood cells showed an average increase of 840 cells or average increase of 51 per cent. The blood platelets showed an average increase of 66 000 or of 105 per cent. It is apparent from this table that the relative increases were far greater for the white cells and the blood platelets than for the erythrocytes, this observation was seen in every study.



 Γ 16 2

This is an x-ray of the spleen taken immediately before the injection of liver extract. In this x-ray the lower border of the spleen is seen beneath the crest of the illium.

TIBLE 111
Combined studies of splenic contractions induced by liver extract

| | Area of spleen | Red count | Hemo globin | thite count | Platelet count |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------|----------------------|--------------|-------------------|
| Before injection After contraction | sq cm 93 6 50 0 | millions 3 62 4 12 | per cert 73 83 | 1660 2500 | 63 000 129 000 |
| Per cent increase | 1 | 139 | 13 7 | 510 | 105 0 |

These observations suggested the possibility of attempting to evaluate on the human spleen the effects of certain drugs which have been known



Fig 3

This is an x-ray of the spleen taken immediately after the injection of liver extract and demonstrates the change in size of the splenic shadow

to stimulate splenic contractions in animals. Consequently adrenalin, histamine and eserine were used to induce splenic contractions. The results obtained following the intramuscular injection of these drugs are presented in Table IV.

As shown in the table a marked contraction of the spleen was noted eight minutes after the intramuscular injection of 10 cc of adrenalin. The spleen contracted from an area of 109 0 sq cm to an area of 48 7 sq cm. One hour later it had increased in size to 82 4 sq cm. Accompanying this contraction there was an increase in the red blood cell count of 650 000 cells together with an increase of hemoglobin of 19 per cent. In this study the white blood cells showed the maximal increase obtained.

TABLE IN

Effects of contraction of the spleen is duced by adres alin I islan is e as d eserce e

| | Area of spleen | Red count | Hemo globin | White count | Mean corpu cular volume | Color | Platel t | Messl p + < ur |
|-------------------------------|-------------------|--------------|----------------|----------------|----------------------------------|-------|----------|-------------------|
| | sq cm | million's | per cent | | μ3 | | | |
| 4drenalın | | | | | , | | | l |
| Before injection | 109 1 | 3 22 | 63 | 1500 | 0 917 | 0 985 | 90,000 | 121 75 |
| 8 minutes after injection of | | | | | | | | |
| 1 cc , I NI * | 48 7 | 3 87 | 79 | 4100 | 0 925 | 1 01 | 158 000 | 138,80 |
| 1 hour after injection | 84 2 | | | | | | | |
| Histamine | | | | | | | | |
| Before injection | 100 8 | 3 32 | 65 | 1650 | 0 915 | 0 985 | 68 000 | 122,78 |
| 7 minutes after injection of | | | | | | | | · |
| 1 mgm I M | 75 5 | 3 67 | 70 | 2700 | 0 915 | 0 960 | 124 000 | 106/52 |
| I hour after injection | 93 5 | | | | - | | | |
| L serine | | ì | | | 1 | 1 | | |
| Before injection | 97 5 | 3 37 | 64 | 1250 | 0 900 | 0 955 | 96 000 | 128 70 |
| 40 minutes after injection of | | | . } | j | 1 | - | } | |
| 24 mgm IM | 73 6 | 3 36 | 64 | 1100 | 0 890 | 0 955 | 88 000 | 115 75 |
| ~ | | | | | | | | |

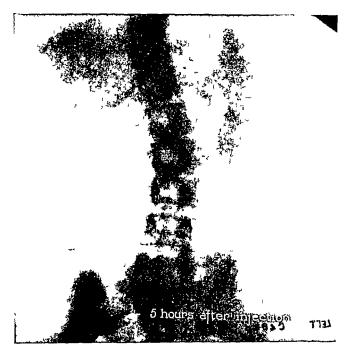
^{* 1 \1 —}intramuscularly

namely, 2,600 cells, or an increase of 172 per cent. With this contraction there was also an increase in the platelet count of 68,000.

Splenic contraction was also induced by the intramuscular injection of 10 mgm of histamine. Seven minutes after this injection the splech had contracted from 100 8 sq. cm. to 75 5 sq. cm. In one hour it had increased in size to 93 5 sq. cm., that is, almost to its original size. With this contraction there was an increase in the red cell count of 350,000 red cells, with a 5 per cent increase of hemoglobin. The white blood cells increased by 1,050 cells and the platelet count was increased by 56,000 platelets. As in the previous studies the white blood cells and platelets showed a greater proportional increase than the red cells and the hemoglobin.

The intramuscular injection of 2.4 mgm escrine sulphate also induced a splenic contraction. This contraction did not occur until 40 minutes after the injection. The surface area of the spleen decreased from 97.5 sq. cm. to 73.6 sq. cm. As seen in Table IV, there was no appreciable alteration in the formed elements of the blood accompanying this contraction. This was the only study in which no significant alteration of the formed elements of the blood was obtained with an induced splenic contraction. When the parasympathetic nervous system was blocked by giving atropine intramuscularly no contraction followed the injection of esering.

Differential blood counts are found in Table V. There was a relative and absolute increase in the polymorphonuclear cell count after the



Fic 4

This viray of the spleen was taken 5 hours after the contraction had occurred. It demonstrates the return of the spleen to its original size

TABLE V

Differential white counts

| | Contraction liver e | i induced by | Contraction induced by adrenalin | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------|--------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------|--|
| | Before | \fter | Before | After per cent | |
| | per cent | per cent | per cent | | |
| Polymorphonuclears Eosinophils | 46 | 72 | 44 | 57 1 | |
| Small lymphocytes | 51 | 22 | 52 | 37 | |
| Large lymphocytes | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | |
| Monocytes | 1 | 4 | 2 | [3 | |

induced splenic contraction. Accompanying this there was a relative decrease in the lymphocyte count. These variations were found with each splenic contraction studied. No abnormal cells were seen in the smears taken either before or after the contraction. The reticulocyte count showed no variation.

The blood pressure was followed in each study, as may be seen in Tables II and IV—A fall in blood pressure was invariably obtained following the intravenous injection of liver extract—A similar fall of blood pressure occurred after the injection of histamine—In the studies in which adrenalin and eserine were used as the stimulant to contraction, there was invariably a rise in blood pressure

DISCUSSION

Before discussing the data presented in this paper it may be well to point out that while certain changes in blood cytology took place as a result of the induced splenic contractions, the results may not be indicative of the function of the normal spleen, since it may be recalled that the patient showed both an anemia and a splenomegaly. Obviously such an abnormal organ could store a much greater quantity of blood or cells than could a spleen of normal size. Furthermore, the degree or ratio of contraction obtained could scarcely be expected to occur with the normal spleen. Thus it might be thought that the pathological conditions might negate or partially invalidate the significance of these observations as regards the normal physiological function of the organ as a blood reservoir. This matter cannot be definitely settled at this time, but the authors prefer the interpretation that the present circumstances constitute merely an evaggeration of the normal

The mechanism of the contractions is not clearly understood and his co-workers (8) isolated histamine from alcoholic extracts of fresh liver Histamine present in the liver extract given intravenously might then be the substance responsible for the induction of the splenic con-Similar effects, namely a splenic constriction, were produced with liver extract and with a drug stimulating the sympathetic nervous In these two types of experiments, there was a system, adrenalin lowering of the blood pressure with the liver extract and a rise in blood pressure accompanying the contraction induced by adrenalin would seem to eliminate the fall in blood pressure as a significant occur-Furthermore, whereas there occurred a peripheral vasodilation in the study with liver extract, and a peripheral vasoconstriction in the contraction induced with adrenalin, it may be safely stated that peripheral vasodilation had little or no effect on the production of the alteration in the blood elements

The contraction induced by histamine may have been due to the direct action of the drug on the unstriated musculature of the organ or it may have been the response of the spleen to shock produced by the drug

A drug which stimulates the parasympathetic nervous system namely, eserine, also gave a splenic contraction. It may be pointed out that the contraction was smaller than that obtained by other means, and that there was no alteration in the blood elements accompanying the change in size of the spleen

Blood volume determinations showed very little alteration. There may have been at other times a greater increase in blood volume not detected by the method used. Vital red cannot be used repeatedly intravenously in clinical studies.

Perhaps the most striking fact among these results is the dispro portionate increase in cell counts. Thus in each of the studies with liver extract and also with the other stimulating drugs the increase in the number of white blood cells was over threefold that of the red blood corpuscles, while the proportionate increase of the blood platelets was almost invariably greater than that of the white blood cells. No matter what mechanism was involved in the addition of these cells to the peripheral blood, these ratios may represent the relative proportions of these cells available in the splenic reservoir. This being the case the spleen may be considered as a potential and readily available source not only of red blood corpuscles but of white blood cells and blood platelets as well. It is not inconceivable that the spleen functions as a reservoir for these cellular elements.

SUMMARY

- I In a patient who showed both anemia and a splenomegaly it was possible to induce [and observe] a marked contraction of the spleen by the intravenous injection of liver extract and the intramuscular injection of adrenalin histamine and eserine. This contraction was observed
- 2 Accompanying these induced splenic contractions there occurred marked increases in the number of cellular elements of the circulating blood. The relative proportion of the various cellular components suggests that the blood of the splenic reservoir has a cytological composition in which the relative proportion of cells is different from that of the circulating blood.
- 3 These experiments make it obvious that the spleen must be con sidered not only as a reservoir of red blood cells, but that it can also store proportionally greater numbers of white blood cells and blood platelets

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THE PROTEINS OF BLOOD AND SUBCUTANEOUS LYMPH IN DOGS

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(Received for publication June 17 1933)

In the course of experiments undertaken to discover the effect of the flow and the composition of lymph on the formation of edema an opportunity has been afforded for comparing the albumin and globulin concentrations of blood serum with those of lymph serum obtained from lymphatics of the extremities of dogs. The comparison forms the basis of this communication

METHODS

The dogs used were of mongrel breeds and varied in weight from 15 to 26 kilograms Lymph was obtained through cannulas inserted into one of the lymphatic trunks just above the ankle of either a front or a hind leg Cannulization was performed sometimes under ether anes thesia, sometimes under nembutal anesthesia and sometimes with the aid of a local anesthetic (novocaine) only With animals under general anesthesia the flow of lymph was promoted by gentle massage of the foot and ankle and passive motion of the extremity The non anesthetized dogs were prepared by the method described by White Field and Drinker (1) and allowed to walk about the corridors the normal motion of the extremity furnishing the stimulus for lymph flow. A fine fibrin clot which formed in the lymph on standing was removed before analysis Blood was obtained by puncture of the femoral artery usually at the end of the period of lymph collection and the serum separated as soon as In several instances blood serum obtained both before and after the collection of lymph failed to indicate any change in composition during the experiment

Methods of chemical analysis have been described in a previous paper (2) In some instances, because the quantities of lymph were limited nonprotein nitrogen was determined on the serum only and the value so obtained used in calculating the lymph proteins. The error involved in such an assumption is small. In nine instances in which parallel determinations were made of lymph and serum nonprotein nitrogen the average value for lymph was 24.5 mgm per 100 cc and for serum 22.7 mgm per 100 cc.

NAINTICAL RESULTS

The results of 25 parallel estimations of lymph and scrum albumin and globulin made on specimens obtained from 13 dogs are shown in Table 1. A comparison of the albumin-globulin ratios is shown graphically in Chart 1. Table 1 shows that the A/G ratios for scrum varied from 0.5 to 2.0. The results may be regarded as accurate at least to the first decimal as the relatively high protein content of serum means that small analytical errors are not reflected in significant variations in the A/G ratio. On the other hand the A/G ratios for lymph varied between 0.1 and 3.0. In this case several specimens of lymph were encountered

TABLE 1

Proteins of blood serum and lymph from the legs of dogs

Data grouped by experiments and arranged roughly in ascending order of the total protein content of lymph

| Dog num | Albi | ımın | Glol | bulin | | otal tem | | ımın bulın | Remarks* |
|------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|-------|---------------|--|
| ber | Serum | Lymph | Serum | Ly mph | Serum | Ly mph | Serum | Ly mph | |
| | grams fer 100 cc | grams per 100 cc | | | |
| 5 | 1 36 | 0 05 | 1 88 | 0 17 | 3 24 | 0 22 | 0 72 | 0 29 | Loc-RI-Nutrition il edema |
| 839 | 2 36 | 0 03 | 3 18 | 0 29 | 5 54 | 0 32 | 0 74 | 0 10 | Nem-RI |
| 6 | 1 40 | 0 07 | 1 40 | 0 08 | 2 80 | 0 15 | 1 00 | 0 99 | Nem-In-Plasmapher esis edema |
| į | 1 40 | 0 24 | 1 40 | 0 08 | 2 80 | 0 32 | 1 00 | 3 00 | Ra—Gentle massage |
| | 1 40 | 0 28 | 1 40 | 0 41 | 2 80 | 0 69 | 1 00 | 0 69 | Ra-Vigorous missage |
| 895 | 3 57 | 0.30 | 1 83 | 0 15 | 5 40 | 0 45 | 1 95 | 2 00 | Nem-RI |
| | 3 57 | 0 48 | 1 83 | 0 27 | 5 40 | 0 74 | 1 95 | 1 78 | la |
| 1000 | 2 34 | 0 21 | 3 36 | 0 57 | 5 70 | 0 78 | 0 70 | 0 37 | E-3 hours after other Dog walking |
| 949 | 2 99 | 0 53 | 3 05 | 0 50 | 6 04 | 1 03 | 0 98 | 1 06 | Nem-La-Veins con stricted |
| | 2 99 | 0 44 | 3 05 | 0 29 | 6 04 | 0 73 | 0 98 | 1 52 | La-lems no construted |
| 58 | 3 44 | 0 49 | 2 26 | 0 30 | 5 70 | 0 79 | 1 52 | 1 63 | E-Ra-Macane while recovering |
| | 3 44 | 0 64 | 2 26 | 0 37 | 5 70 | 1 01 | 1 52 | 1 73 | R1-Dog n ill in, |
| | 3 44 | 0 60 | 2 26 | 0.30 | 5 70 | 0 00 | 1 52 | 2 00 | Ra-Dig running |
| | 3 44 | 0 60 | 2 26 | 0 34 | 5 70 | 0 94 | 1 52 | 177 | Ra-Walling of er |
| | | | | | | | | | The state of the s |

TABLE 1 (continued)

| Dog num | Albı | ımın | Glol | oulm | | tal tein | | umin bulin | Remarks* |
|------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|--|
| ber | Serum | L3 mph | Serum | L3 mph | Serum | L3 mph | Serum | L3 mph | |
| | grams per 100 cc | grams per 100 cc | grams per 100 cc | grams per 100 cc | grams per 100 cc | grams per 100 cc | | | |
| 69 | 3 50 | 0 68 | 2 27 | 0 58 | 5 77 | 1 26 | 1 54 | 1 17 | E-After recovery dog walking |
| 840 | 3 08 3 08 3 08 | 0 97 0 96 1 16 | 1 99 1 99 1 99 | 0 52 0 45 0 49 | 5 07 5 07 5 07 | 1 49 1 41 1 65 | 1 55 1 55 1 55 | 1 86 2 13 2 37 | Loc—R!—Massage R!—Walking R!—Running |
| | 3 08 | 0 86 | 1 99 | 0 41 | 5 07 | 1 27 | 1 55 | 2 10 | Rl—Walking after rest period |
| 91 | 3 75 | 1 15 | 2 63 | 0 74 | 6 38 | 1 89 | 1 43 | 1 55 | Loc-La-Mixture walking and running |
| 841 | 3 82 | 0 87 | 3 01 | 0 68 | 6 83 | 1 55 | 1 27 | 1 28 | Nem—Ra |
| | 3 82 3 82 | 1 14 | 3 01 3 01 | 0 91 0 82 | 6 83 6 83 | 2 05 2 17 | 1 27 1 27 | 1 25 1 22 | La Rl and Ll |
| 842 | 3 54 | 1 73 | 3 86 | 1 50 | 7 40 | 3 23 | 0 92 | 1 15 | Nem—La—Veins con stricted |
| 950 | 2 49 | 0 85 | 5 40 | 2 60 | 7 89 | 3 45 | 0 46 | 0 33 | Nem—La |

^{*} Abbreviations as follows Nem = nembutal anesthesia E = ether anesthesia Loc = local novocaine anesthesia La = left fore leg Ra = right forc leg Ll = left hind leg Rl = right hind leg

in which the total protein concentration was less than 0.5 gram per cent and it is evident that small analytical errors in the analysis of such specimens produce wide variations in the A/G ratios. Moreover the ratios will increase in accuracy as the protein content of the specimen rises 1 . This factor of the accuracy of measurement has been given consideration in Chart 1. Collectively considered there were 10 in stances in which the serum ratio was greater than the lymph ratio and 15 examples of the reverse relationship. The average albuming globulin ratio of all the lymph specimens analyzed was 1.41 \pm 0.09 and the

Probable error of the mean

¹ An example will render the magnitude of the possible analytical error more clear. Duplicate analyses of a lymph specimen show for total protein 0.38 and 0.42 gram per cent and for albumin 0.18 and 0.22 gram per cent. The A/G ratio calculated from the average of the duplicate measurements is 1.00 and yet the individual measurements can be combined to give ratios which vary from 0.75 to 1.38. An analytical variation of the same magnitude occurring in serum with a protein content of 6.00 grams per cent. produces a ratio fluctuation between 0.98 and 1.02 only.

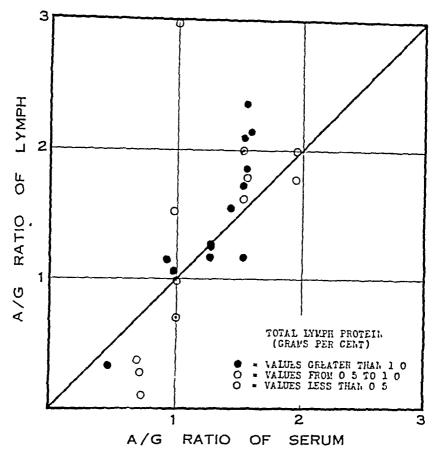


FIG. 1 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ALBUMN GLOBULIN RATIOS OF BLOOD SERVIN AND LAMPH FROM THE LAMBRUITES IN DOCS.

The diagonal line follows the course of identity in the ratios and serves to emphasize the divergence of individual determinations from this identity

corresponding average for the serums was $1.26\pm0.05\,^{\circ}$. A statistical calculation by the product-moment formula gives for the respective ratios a coefficient of correlation of 0.81 with a probable error of 0.05. The correlation is sufficiently high to demonstrate a definite relationship between the albuming globulin ratios of lymph and scrum

DISCUSSION

An examination of pertinent literature, tabulated exhaustively by Drinker and Field (3), discloses a great number of observations of the total protein content of lymph while at the same time revealing a paucity of information concerning the protein fractions which enter into its composition. In 1891 Munk and Rosenstein (4) reported two analyses of lymph obtained from the leg of an 18-year-old girl who was afflicted with progressive elephantiasis and who presented a permanent lymph fistula over the upper portion of her calf. Both analyses reveiled a total

protein concentration of 3 5 grams per cent, in one the albumin globulin ratio was 4 and in the other 2.4 Simultaneous analyses of the serum proteins were not made In 1906 Morawitz (5), in attempting to obtain information concerning the origin of the plasma proteins, made two experiments on dogs in which the proteins of plasma were compared with those of thoracic duct lymph. In the first experiment the blood serum showed an albumin globulin ratio of 1 25 and the lymph serum a ratio of 156, in the second experiment the ratio for blood plasma was 1 44 and for lymph plasma 1 58 Although in both instances the lymph ratios were slightly higher than the blood ratios, the author did not regard the differences as significant Finally in 1932 Wells (6) reported nine experiments in which the albumin globulin ratios of serum were compared with those of lymph obtained from the mesenteric lacteals of dogs The measurements revealed an average albumin globulin ratio for serum of 118, an average ratio for lymph of 139, and agreed satisfactorily with direct estimations of the colloidal osmotic pressure The analyses reported here are the first in which the protein fractions of serum have been compared with those of lymph from vessels which drain the subcutaneous tissues Measurements of the colloidal osmotic pressure of serum and cervical lymph have, however, been reported by Loèwen, Field and Drinker (7) The osmotic pressures per gram of lymph protein varied from 55 to 103 mm of water and in each instance were considerably higher than the corresponding pressures for serum The excess pressure of lymph was thought to be an expression of greater permeability of the blood capillaries for serum albumin approximate calculation made by us on the basis of Govaerts' factors (8) indicates that several of the recorded pressures for cervical lymph are so high that they could not be accounted for even if all of the lymph protein were in the form of albumin To explain them one would have to sup pose either that lymph protein did not arise from serum protein or that the blood capillaries exhibit selective permeability for the smaller molecules of the albumin complex A selective permeability of this nature is not in agreement with the analyses reported here

The data reported in this paper show definitely that the albumin globulin ratios of serum and lymph are mutually dependent variables and are thus in accord with the view of Drinker and Field (3, 9) that lymph protein is derived from blood protein. The correlation between the two variables is sufficiently high to indicate that the serum ratio is at least a major factor in establishing the lymph ratio. It does not exclude the possibility that minor factors, among them a slight degree of selective permeability on the part of the blood capillaries, may prevent identity in the proportions of proteins in the two fluids. Several of the grouped analyses obtained in single experiments in this study (particularly with dogs 58 and 840) strongly suggest the modifying influence of

inquiry concerning the distribution of the capillary filtrate. We have already suggested that a large proportion of capillary tufts may be impermeable to protein. These tufts will yield a protein-free ultrafiltrate, the volume of which will depend upon the balance of pressures operating across their walls, namely, the colloidal osmotic pressure in serum together with capillary blood pressure on the inside of each tuft and mechanical tension in the intercellular spaces on the outside The latter tension may be suspected of varying under conditions which affect the mobility of fluid in adjacent lymphatics, being decreased when the pumping action of the lymphatic valves is stimulated by exercise or massage and increased when the valves are at rest. The factors controlling the volume of a filtrate are, therefore, multiple and it is easy to conceive of circumstances, some pathologic and others purely physiologic, under which it will increase greatly or practically vanish For present purposes it is important to hold in mind that this group of capillary tufts will be surrounded by an interstitial fluid which is essentially protein free and that some of this fluid, at times much and at times little, will find its way into radicles of the lymphatic system walls of other capillaries, those for example which permit the passage of protein, the course of events will be considerably modified These vessels will yield interstitial fluid rich in protein which will act to diminish the effective osmotic pressure of the intracapillary colloids and therefore to increase the volume of filtrate. This filtrate will likewise find its way into adjacent radicles of the lymphatic system To what extent diffusion through neighboring intercellular spaces will occur is a matter of pure conjecture but it may be supposed that so long as the lymphatics offer the path of least resistance the major portion of filtrate will move by this route Among a large group of lymphatic capillaries we may therefore imagine that many are carrying a centripetal stream of lymph of extremely low protein content and that a few are transporting fluid the protein concentration of which approaches that of the serum of lymph flow from the various radicles will, moreover, be more rapid in those which contain fluid of high protein concentration Lymph, however, collected from any of the larger lymphatic trunks will represent may be expected to vary considerably as regards total protein content but the proportions of the several protein fractions should remain roughly the same as those in the serum of the same animal An exceptional blood capillary which exhibited selective permeability for albumin molecules could produce a minute flow of this protein fraction into the general stream and so raise the A/G ratio slightly above that in the blood theory then is consistent with the experimental observations being reported It cannot, however, be reconciled with the readings of colloidal osmotic pressure of Loewen, Field, and Drinker (7) which indicate marked divergence between the A/G ratios of serum and lymph

It will have been observed that the first theory, as outlined pre viously, can be identified in essential respects with the second if one supposes each individual blood capillary loop to possess pores the sizes of which cover the whole range of permeability which is assumed in the second theory for many capillaries The distinction, however, is of fundamental importance for in the former instance one must imagine an interstitual fluid everywhere identical in composition with lymph and in the latter it can be thought that one very important function of the lymphatic system is to prevent interstitial fluid from attaining the relatively high protein concentrations of lymph It is for this reason, chiefly, that the two theories have been outlined Although either is consistent with the results reported, it seems desirable to insist that the available experimental evidence does not vet justify the conclusion that lymph as it is collected from a large lymphatic trunk is identical in chemical composition with interstitial fluid in the major portion of the region drained by the trunk

SUMMARY

- 1 Experiments are reported in which the albumin and globulin concentrations in the serum of the blood are compared with those in lymph obtained from lymphatics of the legs of dogs
- 2 In 25 parallel estimations of lymph and serum albumin and globulin the respective A/G ratios showed a correlation coefficient of 0.81 with a probable error of 0.05. The correlation is sufficiently high to demonstrate a definite relationship between the ratios of lymph and serum
- 3 Two theories to account for the entrance of serum proteins into the lymphatics are discussed. The first supposes general permeability of the entire capillary network of the blood for protein and leads to the conclusion that interstitial fluid is everywhere identical in composition with the lymph which drains the area. The second assumes that occasional capillaries only permit the passage of protein, that this protein enters adjacent lymphatics at once, and that it never becomes disseminated throughout the intercellular spaces. The available evidence, including the findings in this investigation, although consistent with either theory, does not justify the conclusion that interstitial fluid and lymph are identical

The authors wish to express their thanks to Dr. Cecil K. Drinker and Dr. Madeleine E. Field for their kindness in demonstrating the technique of cannulating lymphatics

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PERMEABILITY OF CAPILLARIES TO PLASMA LIPOIDS

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(Received for publication June 19, 1933)

It has been rather generally assumed, chiefly because normal urine is practically free from lipoids (9, 10, 11) that the capillaries are impermeable to plasma lipoids. However, no serious attempts seem to have been made to test this assumption, in spite of its important bearing on the question of plasma colloid osmotic pressure. In order to determine whether lipoids diffuse through the capillaries without simultaneous migration of proteins, two types of experiments have been conducted 1 Serum lipoids of normal individuals have been measured before and after the volume of the blood has been decreased, by a procedure which has been employed by Thompson, Thompson and Dailey (25), Krogh, Landis and Turner (13) and Ni and Rehberg (19) They demonstrated that if a normal person stands absolutely still for about half an hour the blood volume decreases and the serum proteins increase by about 10 per cent because there is transudation into the tissues of the lower extremities of a protein free ultrafiltrate of blood plasma 2 Besides, body fluids have been analyzed for lipoids and proteins

METHODS AND MATERIALS

The blood serum of five normal persons was analyzed for proteins, total fatty acids, lipoid phosphorus and cholesterol after they had reclined for half an hour and again after they had stood still for half an All the experiments except one were performed before breakfast Blood was drawn from the antecubital vein with a minimum of stasis In all cases except that of P L the second blood sample was taken while the subject was standing. In the second group of experiments, the protein and lipoid contents of ascitic, pericardial and pleural fluids were measured Blood and fluids were collected simultaneously, in most instances before breakfast. All fluids were centrifuged to remove cells and fibrin clot from the aqueous suspension Proteins were determined by Howe's modification of the Kjeldahl method (5), total fatty acids by the Man and Gildea (16) modification of the Stoddard and Drury technique, cholesterol by a gravimetric digitonin method (17), lipoid phosphorus by a modification of the Fiske and Subbarow method (17)

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RESULTS OF STANDING EXPERIMENTS In Table I under each constituent the paired figures in the first

TABLE 1
Standing experiments

| Subject | Date | | Lı | | | Fatty acide from titer | | Cholesterol | | Proteins | |
|---------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------|---------------------------|---------------------|-------------------|----------------------|--------------------|--|
| | | | mgm per cent | change per cent | m Eq | change fer cent | rigm per cent | change fer cen | gram. fer cent | change per cert | |
| PL | January 11, 1933 | Before After | 8 4 9 8 | 116 5 | 12 2 14 3 | 1165 | 199 235 | 118 1 | 6 30 7 47 | 1168 | |
| јн | January 23, 1933 | Before After | 90 96 | 107 2 | 11 6 13 1 | 113 2 | 205 226 | 110 3 | 7 05 7 84 | 111 2 | |
| EM | January 3, 1933 | Before After | 89 100 | 1126 | 11 7 13 2 | 113 5 | 223 246 | 110 2 | 6 91 7 83 | 1128 | |
| EM | February 17, 1933* | Before After | 99 108 | 108 6 | 12 6 14 0 | 111 3 | 209 231 | 110 5 | 7 00 7 91 | 1130 | |
| CR | January 28, 1933 | Before After | | 102 1 | 16 2 16 0 | 98 8 | 229 260 | 113 5 | 6 33 6 99 | 110 5 | |
| CR | February 28, 1933 | Before After | 9 7 10 2 | 105 5 | 12 2 13 5 | 110 7 | | | 6 31 7 10 | 1126 | |
| TK | February 1, 1933 | Before After | 8 4 9 6 | 114 1 | 99 | | 168 183 | 109 0 | 6 52 7 27 | 111 4 | |

^{*}Second blood taken four and one quarter hours after a breakfast which contained approximately 19 grams of fat

columns represent the values observed before and after standing, the single figures in the second columns the degree to which the given substance in the serum was concentrated. The significance of "fatty acids from titer" is discussed more fully in the article describing the Man and Gildea modification of the Stoddard and Drury method (16) They found that saponification with potassium hydroxide as in the blood serum method, yielded only 82 per cent of the theoretical fatty acids from reprecipitated Pfanstiehl "pure" lecithin Consequently, in order to calculate "total fatty acids," there was added to the "fatty acids from titer" 18 per cent of the phospholipoid fatty acid estimated on the assumption that two equivalent weights of fatty acid unite with one combining weight of phosphorus in lecithin and cephalin Non-phospholipoid fatty acids may be calculated by subtracting from the "total fatty acids" the phospholipoid fatty acids estimated from the serum lipoid phosphorus content. Values for "fatty acids from liter" have been presented here rather than those for non-phospholipoid fatty acids

because it is recognized that these calculations may introduce a considerable error if the analytical errors of the two methods are cumulative, and because neither the exact chemical composition of phosphatides, nor the proportions of different phosphatides present in serum are known

Cholesterol, without any exceptions, increased on standing in the same proportion as did the serum proteins, an indication that it is not diffusible Fatty acids and lipoid phosphorus in 5 of the 7 experiments (PL, JH, EM, January 1 and February 17, and CR, February 28) increased in the same proportions as the proteins. On the other hand, in the serum of T K these constituents increased more than the proteins, and in the serum of CR on January 28 they did not change divergent responses may be explained by the assumption that the metabolism of fat of these subjects was not in a state of equilibrium The change in T K's blood sugar, from 76 mgm per cent to 85 after standing, suggests that the metabolism of carbohydrate was not uniform throughout the experiment. In contrast to the normal serum fatty acids in the first blood samples of PL, JH, and EM, the fatty acids both of CR on January 28 and of TK were at the extremes of the normal range of serum lipoids CR's total fatty acids on January 28 were the highest of 20 normal subjects and were appreciably greater than they were on February 28 After standing, his fatty acids and phospholipoids did not increase TK's serum fatty acids, on the other hand, which were among the lowest of the normal values, increased proportionately more than his proteins. From these data it may be inferred, though it is not proven, that CR on January 28 was utilizing fat derived from his blood stream, while T K was mobilizing fat into his blood stream An attempt was made to test this hypothesis by carrying out a similar standing experiment on a subject after a meal containing fat However, the results of the experiment on E M on February 17 did not differ from those secured in the postabsorptive state, owing, perhaps, to the fact that too little fat was given

In these experiments, then, cholesterol without exception, phospha tides and compounds of fatty acids in five of seven instances, behaved like non diffusible serum proteins

Comparisons of transudates and serum

Data concerning the lipoid content of transudates are presented graphically in the three figures. In Figure 1 the protein contents of ascitic, pericardial and pleural fluids are plotted on the ordinate, cho lesterol content on the abscissa. The column above each point, at the top of the figure represents the concentration of cholesterol in the blood serum. The scale for serum cholesterol is 1/25 of that for transudate cholesterol. Irregular variations in the lengths of the columns show that the amounts of cholesterol in the fluid bear no direct relation to the

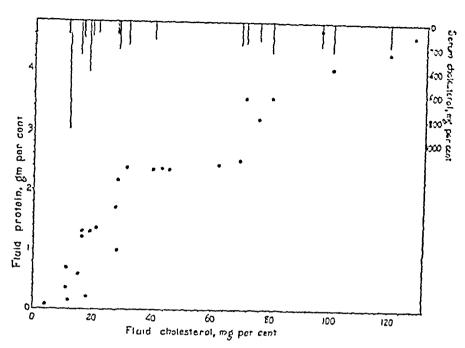


FIG 1 COMPARISON OF CHOLESTEROL AND PROTEIN IN TRANSUDATES

The vertical lines above indicate the concentrations of cholesterol in the sera of the patients from whom the transudates were secured

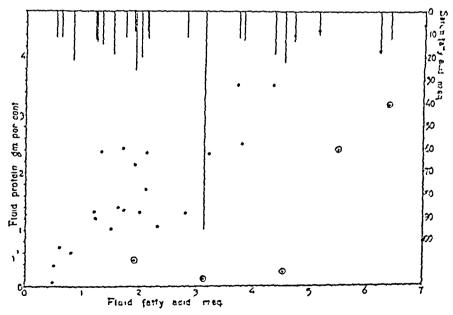


FIG 2 COMPARISON OF FATTY ACID AND PROTEIN IN TRANSUDATES

The vertical lines above indicate the concentrations of fatty acids in the sera of the patients from whom the transudates were secured. The points surrounded by circles are from patients whose sera contained little protein in proportion to fatty acids.

concentrations of cholesterol in the serum — There is an obvious tendency for variations of protein and cholesterol contents of fluids to parallel one another

The arrangement of Figure 2 is similar to that of Figure 1, except that fatty acids from titer are plotted on the abscissa. As was the case with cholesterol, no correlation is evident between the concentrations of fatty acids in sera and transudates. A definite proportion exists between the protein and lipoid contents of the fluids except in those instances which are marked by circles

If the normal capillary wall is impermeable to lipoids and protein, injury, which increases its permeability, will permit the passage of both lipoids and proteins. The quantities of these substances which actually escape from the vessels will depend not only upon the degree of permeability to the individual components, but also upon the concentrations of these components in the serum. It has already been pointed out that the influence of the latter factor is not demonstrable in the data as a whole It does, however, become evident in the points surrounded by circles, which represent instances when the protein in the serum was low in proportion to the lipoids It is especially striking in the lowest of these points. In this instance the serum proteins were reduced to half the normal concentration, while the fatty acids were increased to about nine times the normal Under these circumstances the lipoid concentration in the fluid might be expected to be, as it proved to be, higher in relation to the protein concentration than it was in the other observations in which the proportions of lipoid and protein in the serum were more nearly normal

In Figure 3, in which lipoid phosphorus and protein are compared, there is the same lack of correlation between the concentrations of the former in serum and fluid and the same direct relationship between transudate phosphatides and proteins, with one exception marked with a cross. The significance of this exception must be discounted because the peritoneal fluid, taken at autopsy from a patient with peritonitis, was semi purulent. Some of the lipoid phosphorus may, therefore, have come from our cells and bacteria.

DISCUSSION

It is obvious that the distribution of lipoids to the tissues by the blood stream must involve their passage through the capillary walls, in spite of the demonstrated impermeability of the latter. These experiments throw no light on the means by which this transportation is effected, whether the character of the lipoids is altered (3, 4, 22, 23, 24), or whether the impermeability of the capillaries is merely a facultative characteristic. In most of the standing experiments, during the half hour period, an equilibrium appears to have been reached and main

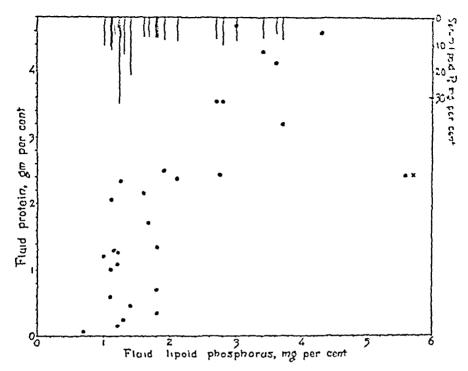


FIG 3 COMPARISON OF LIPOID PHOSPHORUS AND PROTEIN IN TRANSUDATES

The vertical lines above indicate the concentrations of fatty acids in the sera of the patients from whom the transudates were secured. The point marked by a cross represents peritoneal fluid secured postmortem from a patient with peritonitis.

tained, in which the concentration of all lipoids, like that of proteins, was influenced only by the hemoconcentration that resulted from the loss of serum ultrafiltrate to the tissues. In two cases fatty acids and phospholipoids seem to have been simultaneously affected by some other influence, presumably connected with the metabolism of fat. That cholesterol was not similarly involved is only one more addition to the great body of evidence that this lipoid fraction is not directly concerned with fat metabolism. The problem of the exchange of lipoids between blood stream and tissue cells becomes even more mysterious when, from the studies of transudates, it becomes apparent how little lipoid material (8, 14) gains access through normally permeable vessels to the interstitial fluids, which presumably serve as the medium of exchange between blood and cells

The association between lipoids and proteins (2, 12, 15, 18, 20, 21, 29) in both types of experiment might suggest that the lipoids are restrained by combination with proteins. Such a deduction is not, however, obligatory. Such combinations may exist and the proteins may act as vehicles for a certain amount of lipoid material. In the case already

referred to in which protein was reduced and lipoid greatly increased in the serum, a greater amount of lipoid might have been expected in the transudates if it had been restrained from traversing the walls of the vessels only by its combination with protein

The exact correlation between the changes of cholesterol and protein in these experiments has a bearing on the nature of the interstitial fluids Thompson, Thompson and Dailey (25), comparing the volume of the blood, determined by the dye method, with the concentration of proteins in the serum, concluded that the fluid which passed from the blood stream into the tissues of the leg contained no protein Waterfield (27), in similar experiments, in which he measured the blood volume by the carbon monoxide instead of the dye method, believed that he detected evidence of serum protein loss probably involving only the albumin More recently Youmans, Wells, Donley and Miller (30) have shown that the protein fractions and total proteins of the serum are all proportionately affected by the hemoconcentration To these cholesterol can now be added. It is hardly conceivable that if the capillary mem branes, under the conditions of these experiments, were permeable enough to permit appreciable quantities of protein to pass out, both fractions and cholesterol would all escape in exactly the same proportions tainly such an association is entirely incompatible with Waterfield's conclusions Krogh, Landis and Turner (13) also found no evidence of loss of serum protein when transudation was induced in the arm by venous obstruction It becomes harder in the light of these experiments to believe that capillary filtrates produced by venous stasis can contain as much protein as Drinker and Field (6) believe

If the capillary walls are impermeable to lipoids, the latter may exert an appreciable colloid osmotic pressure in the blood stream and, on this account, have some influence upon the exchange of fluids in the body Indirect evidence of various kinds indicates that the osmotic pressure of the lipoids is extremely small (1, 7 28), but more exact data on the subject are greatly to be desired

CONCLUSIONS

By standing experiments aimed to produce physiological transudation of fluid from the blood stream, and by comparisons of proteins and lipoids in serum and in pathological transudates, evidence has been adduced which indicates that the capillary walls are ordinarily imper meable not only to proteins but also to cholesterol, phosphatides, and compounds of saturated and slightly unsaturated fatty acids

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THE CLINICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE ERYTHROCYTIC SEDIMENTATION TEST IN RHEUMATOID ARTHRITIS 1

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(Received for publication June 28, 1933)

Several investigators (1, 2, 3, 4) have called attention to the increased sedimentation rate of the red blood cells in patients with rheumatoid arthritis. In order to ascertain the practical importance of this phenomenon, an extensive study was undertaken which continued for three years. During this period, routine sedimentation tests were carried out on all patients with rheumatoid arthritis on admission to the arthritis department of the Cornell Clinic. When possible, the test was repeated at varying intervals as long as a patient was under observation.

Altogether 597 cases were included in this study, and the purpose of the following paper is to present an analysis of our findings

TECHNIC

The technic of the sedimentation test was similar in all respects to that of Rourke and Ernstene (5) and need not be described here. The method of these investigators is particularly applicable in rheumatoid arthritis because of its correction for anemia which is a common though variable factor in this disease. Heparin was used as an anticoagulant throughout the study and appeared to have no appreciable effect on the sedimentation rate. The test was recorded as the corrected sedimentation index (C S I) and represents the rate of fall of the erythrocytes in millimeters per minute, after correcting for anemia. Any result up to 0.4 was considered normal. Unless otherwise stated, all sedimentation results reported refer to those at the time of the patient's first visit to the Clinic.

Relation of the corrected sedimentation index to the activity of the disease

In this report, the term "activity of the disease" refers to the severity of the infectious process. It must be recognized that this activity does not always parallel the degree of joint involvement as illustrated by "burned out" cases of arthritis in which swelling and deformity of the joints are present but the disease process is entirely quiescent.

¹ This study was carried on with the technical assistance of Edith L Ross, Edna H Lindsay, Edith M Kirkpatrick and Elnora B Carmichael

In patients with rheumatoid arthritis, the activity, or severity, of the disease is often difficult to determine clinically. It is roughly estimated from the amount of pain and tenderness in the joints, from the character rather than the degree of the swelling, and from the tendency of the process to migrate from joint to joint. However, temperamental factors, which vary considerably in different patients and at different times in the same individual, frequently give rise to an entirely erroneous impression concerning the activity of the disease. Weather and occupational conditions, likewise, play more or less important rôles in confusing the clinical picture. In order to determine whether the difficulties caused by these variants could be eliminated by use of the sedimentation test, the results of this method when applied to a selected group of intelligent, mentally stable, and cooperative patients were analyzed. The following protocols illustrate our findings.

Case 1 H W, female, aged 45, admitted to the clinic March 16, 1928, gave a history of polyarthritis of six years duration. At the time of admission, pain and stiffness of the joints were slight, and the patient was pursuing her usual occupation as a typist. Physical examination revealed nothing of importance except in the joints—there was a slight but definite fusiform swelling of the fingers, with a low degree of swelling of the left knee and both ankles. A diagnosis of mild rheumatoid arthritis was made. During the succeeding three years, this patient was under our observation and throughout this period there was remarkably little change in her symptoms and physical condition. The following results of the corrected sedimentation tests, taken over part of that time, closely paralleled the clinical impression. January 1, 1931, 0.6, April 29, 1931, 0.55, September 25, 1931, 0.7, October 16, 1931, 0.6, February 29, 1932, 0.6.

Case 2 J Mc, male, aged 20, admitted to the clinic on January 16, 1931, gave a history of polyarthritis of two years duration and complained of considerable pain at the time of admission. Physical findings were unimportant except for the joint condition—the left hand and right knee were considerably swollen and slightly tender. During the 15-month period that the patient vas under observation, the feet, heels, shoulders, elbows, and right hand gradually became involved. He consistently complained of much pain, and tenderness was frequently noted. A diagnosis of rheumatoid arthritis was made. It was considered a very active and rapidly progressing case, without any remission during the period of observation. With this patient, the sedimentation rates closely paralleled the clinical impression, being high each time the test was made. The results of these tests were as follows. January 16, 1931, 17, May 1, 1931, 12, October 30, 1931, 16, November 25, 1931, 13, and March 16, 1932, 0.75.

Cores. N. DeV, male, aged 46, was admitted to the clinic August 22, 1930, with a history of a rapidly progressing polyarthritis of nine months duration. Physical examination revealed the typical fusiform swelling of the fingers, sy ollen knees and ankles, and stiffness of shoulders and hips. Several of the joints were tender. The remainder of the examination was irrelevant, except for the presence of a duoderal ulcer that caused no symptoms while the patient was under observation. He showed no improvement while attending the clinic, and was admitted to the hospital January 2, 1931. A corrected sedi-

mentation test, carried out on December 29, 1930, a few days before admission. was 1 23 With rest in bed the patient made rapid progress toward recovery. and was discharged from the hospital on February 28 1931, as a cured case At that time he was entirely free from symptoms There was, however, a small amount of swelling still remaining in the fingers and wrists, but this was considered as due to the scarring resulting from the disease, rather than as representing an active process The corrected sedimentation tests during his stay in the hospital closely paralleled his clinical improvement, being 12 on January 2 1931 07 on February 7, 1931 and 04 on February 25, 1931-the figure recognized as normal in a corrected sedimentation test. Following his discharge from the hospital, the patient returned to work On resuming his occupation, there was a marked return of the arthritic process On May 19, 1931, his clinical condition approximated that on admission to the hospital four months previously, and his corrected sedimentation test was 1 6 the succeeding year this case was followed in the out patient department, but there was no appreciable change noted On April 29, 1932, when last seen, his arthritis was unimproved and his corrected sedimentation test was 19

Case 4 M O, female, aged 40, was admitted to the clinic March 14, 1930, with a three year history of pain and intermittent swelling in fingers and ankles Symptoms had never been severe, and she had been able to continue her house hold activities. Physical findings were unimportant except in respect to the joints. There was questionable swelling of the proximal interphalangeal joints and slight puffiness around the ankles. A diagnosis of mild rheumatoid arthritis was made. During the succeeding year she was observed in the clinic at irregular intervals, with little if any evidence of arthritis. On February 3, 1931, the date of her first test the corrected sedimentation index was 0.2

Beginning in March 1931, her arthritis gradually grew worse, and the fingers took on a marked fusiform swelling. In succession the knees, wrists, elbows, and shoulders became swollen and painful. There were aching pains in practically every joint in the body. The sedimentation test coincided perfectly with the change in her clinical condition, the index being 0.9 on April 15, 1931, and 1.3 on April 23, 1931. On May 11, 1931, she again attended the clinic. At that time she was barely able to walk and her sedimentation index was 1.3. On May 23 of the same year, she made her last visit to the clinic and her index at that time was 1.1. Following this observation, she reported by telephone that she was unable to leave her bed.

Case 5 J M male, aged 24 admitted to the clinic on December 20, 1930, gave a history of a rapidly progressing polyarthritis of ten weeks duration Physical examination showed little of importance except for the joint condition There was fusiform swelling of several fingers, with swollen and tender knees and ankles A diagnosis of rheumatoid arthritis was made and the condition was so severe that the patient was admitted immediately to the hospital. The sedimentation index on December 20, 1930, was 20 On the day of admission, the patient's temperature was 99 5° F, and was normal thereafter. With rest in bed and hospital care the arthritis rapidly improved from the day of admission. On February 13, 1931, the swelling had completely disappeared, and on February 25, twelve days later, the patient was discharged as free from signs and symptoms of the disease. The clinical change was correctly and immediately registered in his sedimentation tests. On December 29, 1930, the index was 0 65 January 13, 1931, it was 0 4 on February 7 and 25 of the same year it was 0 1 and 0 2, respectively.

The first protocol is that of a patient running a mild course of arthritis throughout observation. Her sedimentation indices recorded at varying intervals during this time were remarkably consistent with the clinical findings, being slightly above normal each time the test was made. A similar relation between the sedimentation rate and the clinical findings was revealed in the second protocol, although the second patient had a severe process, and his sedimentation indices were consistently high

Protocols 3, 4, and 5 are of patients whose clinical picture varied markedly during observation. The third patient had a complete remission, the fourth developed a severe form of the disease from a very mild one, while the fifth recovered completely from a very active arthritis. The sedimentation indices in each of these cases correctly and immediately registered the changes in the patient's physical condition.

In the other patients of our series the relationship between the clinical picture and the sedimentation rate is similar to that in the five protocols given. Regardless of the fundamental factors underlying the sedimentation phenomenon, it is apparent that the crythrocytic sedimentation index parallels closely the severity, or activity, of the arthritic process.

Relation of corrected sedimentation index to the degree of joint involvement

In the preceding section of our report, it was shown that the corrected sedimentation index is directly related to the activity, or severity, of the arthritic process. In the present section, a comparison of this index with the degree of joint involvement is considered. A differentiation between the activity, or severity, of the disease and the degree of joint involvement must be made, as it is recognized clinically that some patients suffering from a severe form of the disease have considerable pain, malaise, and even disability, with little change in the joints that may be detected by physical examination, whereas a patient may have marked swelling of the joints with deformity and ankylosis without the symptoms named above

In Table 1, the 597 patients studied are tabulated according to degree

TABLE 1

Relat or of corrected sedimentation index to degree of joint involvement

| Type of care | Number of cares | Lowest C.S.I | Highest CS I | Average CSI |
|--|------------------|-----------------|-------------------|----------------------|
| Withou joint stelling With joint sitelling With swelling deformities and ankylosis | 308 232 57 | 0 1 0 1 | 2 0 2 1 2 6 | 0 64 0 85 1 11 |
| To al | 597 | | | |

of joint involvement. Three hundred and eight of these had no appreciable joint changes at the time of examination, their sedimentation indices ranged from 0.1 to 2.0, with an average of 0.64. Two hundred and thirty-two of them had joint swelling without ankylosis, or deformities other than swelling their sedimentation indices varied from 0.1 to 2.1, with an average of 0.85. Fifty seven of them were in the more advanced stages of the disease with deformities such as ulnar deviation and ankylosis, the sedimentation indices of this group ranged from 0.3 to 2.6, with an average of 1.11

From these results it is evident that, on the average, the greater the degree of swelling, deformity, and ankylosis, the higher the sedimentation rate, and, therefore, the greater the activity, or severity, of the disease, but as far as the individual patient is concerned, this deduction cannot always be made

Relation of the corrected sedimentation index to the age of the patient

In Table 2, the corrected sedimentation indices of the 597 cases are arranged according to the age of the patient. In this comparison, an interesting though unexpected relation was revealed. In patients in the third and fourth decades of life, a similar average sedimentation index was obtained but in those 40 years of age or over the average sedimentation rate showed a gradual increase all the way to the last group composed of patients 60 years of age or older

TIBLE 2
Relation of corrected sedimentation index to age of patient

| Age of patient | Number of cases | Average C S I |
|---------------------|-----------------|------------------|
| Under 30 years | 69 | 0 69 |
| From 30 to 39 years | 122 | 0 68 |
| From 40 to 49 years | 181 | 0 73 |
| From 50 to 59 years | 170 | 0 83 |
| 60 years or over | 55 | 0 96 |
| | | |
| Total | 597 | |

The explanation of this gradual increase in the sedimentation rate with advancing years is not altogether clear. In the first place, it would seem probable that as patients grow older they tend to develop disease conditions other than arthritis which also affect the sedimentation rate. Our records indicate, however, that this factor plays no important rôle in the phenomenon, as no appreciable increase in disease unrelated to arthritis was detected in the older groups of our series. In the second place, it was observed that each succeeding decade is augmented by an increasing proportion of patients with severe arthritis who failed to recover from the disease earlier in life, as evidenced by an increase of the average disease duration with each succeeding age period. It seems

reasonable to conclude, therefore, that the increase in the average sedimentation rate with each succeeding age period is due primarily to the increase in the number of patients with severe arthritis, although other factors may play minor rôles in the results

Relation of corrected sedimentation index to season of year

Clinically it is generally recognized that in temperate climates patients with rheumatoid arthritis are usually at their worst in cold weather and at their best in hot weather. In order to determine whether this impression is confirmed by the sedimentation test, the indices of patients followed through the various seasons were analyzed. All patients on whom tests had been made in at least three seasons were included. With those having more than one test during any one seasonal period, the average was considered as that patient's index for that season. In the study, "Winter" covers the period from January 1 to May 31, "Spring" from April 1 to June 30, "Summer" from July 1 to September 30, and "Autumn" from October 1 to December 31

TABLE 3
Relation of corrected sedin entation index to season of year

| Season of year | Number of indices | Average CSI |
|----------------|-------------------|----------------|
| Winter | 58 | 0 865 |
| Spring | 62 | 0 840 |
| Summer | 38 | 0 799 |
| Autumn | 55 | 0 846 |

Altogether 69 patients were studied for seasonal variation. On these 69 patients, 58 tests were recorded in the winter, 62, in the spring, 38, in the summer, and 55, in the autumn. In Table 3, the average corrected sedimentation index for each of these recorded groups is presented. The highest figure occurred in winter, and the lowest, in summer, while spring and autumn gave intermediate results. The number of cases studied and the differences between the seasonal averages were too small to warrant definite conclusions. However, it is strongly suggestive that seasonal variations in the average sedimentation indices do occur, and as this test is an index of the activity, or severity, of the arthritis, that patients, on the average, are worse in the winter and better in the summer

Relation of the corrected sedin entation index to the duration of the disease

The records of the patients under observation were studied again to discover whether any relationship existed between the corrected sedimentation index and the duration of the disease. In the individual records little such relationship was found—some patients having had the disease for only a few weeks gave high sedimentation rates, while others having had it for many years gave a low sedimentation rate, and

vice versa In studying the average rates of sedimentation for various disease duration periods, however, it was found that there was a distinct tendency for these rates to increase as the duration of the disease increased (Table 4) From these results we conclude that patients having rheumatoid arthritis for a long period tend to have a more severe form of the disease than those having it for a short period, but that great individual variation exists

TABLE 4
Relation of corrected sedimentation index to duration of disease

| | Number of | Average C.S.I |
|---------------------------|-----------|------------------|
| Duration of disease | cases | |
| One month or under | 9 | 0 70 |
| Over 1 month to 3 months | 50 | 0 71 |
| Over 3 months to 6 months | 63 | 0 70 |
| Over 6 months to 1 year | 87 | 0 77 |
| Over 1 year to 3 years | 120 | 0 76 |
| Over 3 years to 5 years | 74 | 0 79 |
| Over 5 years | 194 | 0 79 |
| • | | |
| | 597 | |

Relation of the corrected sedimentation index to the streptococcus agglutination test

In previous articles (6, 7), the authors showed that a high percentage of patients with rheumatoid arthritis gave a strong agglutination reaction with a biologically specific type of hemolytic streptococcus which, for convenience, they designated as "typical strain" This reaction appeared to be a true immunological response to a bacterial invader question naturally arises as to what relationship, if any, exists between this agglutination reaction and the erythrocytic sedimentation rate An examination of the records of the cases in our series indicated that there was none whatever. In patients with rheumatoid arthritis, the agglutinins are slow in developing and do not reach their maximum titer until about 6 months, on an average, has elapsed Following recovery of the patients, the agglutinins gradually diminish, but do not disappear, usually, until the patient has been free from the disease for several months. and sometimes years. The sedimentation rate, on the other hand, is directly related to the activity, or severity, of the disease process, and changes directly with variations in this activity The difference in these two tests may be appreciated readily from a study of Figure 1. which is a graphic record of the agglutination and sedimentation tests of Case 5, previously described, and is typical of other similar records

DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY

The erythrocytic sedimentation test was performed on five hundred and ninety seven patients with rheumatoid arthritis in order to determine its significance in this disease

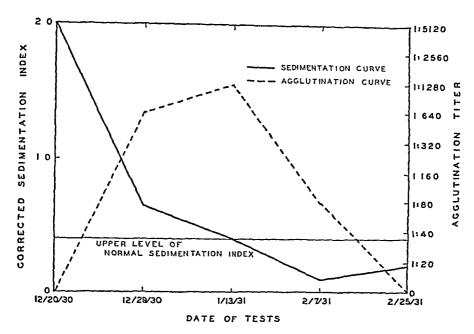


FIG 1 A COMPARISON OF THE RESULTS OF THE SEDIMENTATION AND AGGLUTINATION TESTS OF CASE 5

The results of the investigation indicate that the corrected sedimentation index is a reliable criterion of the activity, or severity, of the arthritic process at the time of testing, and that any fundamental change in the clinical condition produces immediate corresponding change in the sedimentation rate

Patients with a greater degree of joint involvement and a longer disease-duration have higher sedimentation rates, on the average, than those with less joint involvement and shorter disease-duration Considerable variation occurs, however, in individual cases

The observation that the average sedimentation rate progressively increases with advancing age periods is of interest. This phenomenon appears to be due primarily to the increasing accumulation of patients with severe arthritis in whom the disease began at some earlier age

From a study of seasonal variations in the sedimentation rate over a long period, suggestive evidence was deduced that, on the average, the rate was higher in winter than in summer, while spring and autumn occupied intermediate positions. Further work is necessary in order to confirm this impression

No relationship was found between the sedimentation rate and the streptococcus agglutination reaction

With the above information at hand, it seems justifiable to discuss the practical importance of this test. In the past, physicians treating arthritis have been greatly handicapped by lack of means for estimating

the results of their therapy The sedimentation test appears to supply this widely felt need, as it is a reliable measuring rod of the activity, or severity, of the arthritic process By repeating this test at regular intervals, the progress of the patient may be determined

Rheumatoid arthritis has attracted more than its share of ill conceived treatments. The sedimentation test provides a ready aid for correctly estimating the value of such procedures.

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THE OXYGENATION OF CONCENTRATED VERSUS NORMAL BLOODS

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(Received for publication June 28 1933)

While the physiological activity of normal or dilute bloods represents one of the most widely studied fields of investigation, the problems presented by high concentrations of hemoglobin have not received the attention they ment. As far as the writers have been able to determine comparatively little attention has been paid to the ability of polycythemic bloods to take up oxygen under normal conditions. Barcroft and Murray (1) compared the effect of concentrating blood by centrifugating and removing part of the plasma. For a given O tension they found a higher degree of saturation in the concentrated blood than in normal blood which in turn took up more O₂ than did a sample diluted with the plasma which had been taken from the concentrated blood. This variation was considered secondary to a disturbance in the carbon-dioxide equilibrium. Richards and Strauss. (2) found no difference between the dissociation curve of the blood of a polycythemic patient and that of blood from a normal individual.

The experiments reported in this paper fall into two groups the first designed to repeat the tests of the oxygen combining power of concentrated blood in intro, and the second to observe and compare the oxygenation of concentrated blood with that of normal blood in the perfused lung where the experimenter has a maximum control over the factors associated with oxygenation. Such a series of experiments should offer a concrete and definite answer to the question, does a plethora of red cells, per se, influence the respiratory function of the blood.

Experiments on the O2 combining power of concentrated blood

The technique employed in the handling of the blood and gases in these experiments was essentially that described by Austin et al. (3) The concentrated blood was obtained by centrifugating blood of normal dogs and pipetting away most of the supernatant plasma. A measured amount of this blood, of known oxygen capacity, was placed in a small tonometer bearing at one end a two way stopcock and at the other a

¹ Crile Research Scholar

tube of fairly large bore The tubular end was connected to a similar end of a large tonometer of the same type having a capacity of 250 to 300 cc Care was taken to see that the blood filled the smaller tonometer well into the rubber connection This connection was then clamped and the pair of tonometers connected with a manifold whereby one could either evacuate the vessel or supply CO2-free air, nitrogen, or carbon dioxide The tonometer was repeatedly evacuated and washed with nitrogen after which sufficient CO2-free air was admitted to give the desired oxygen tension, following which the CO2 tension was adjusted to 40 millimeters Pressure within the tonometer was then brought to atmospheric by the admission of nitrogen With the cocks closed the tonometer was removed from the manifold and the clamp between the blood and gas chamber taken off, allowing the blood to flow into the larger chamber In this manner portions of each sample of blood were brought into equilibrium with gas mixtures of five different oxygen tensions The tonometers were rotated simultaneously in an air bath at 37° C for thirty minutes At the end of the period of equilibration the blood was allowed to return to the small chamber and the clamp replaced The chambers were then disconnected, and samples taken for analysis by forcing the blood into a pipette with mercury pressure At no time was the blood allowed to come in contact with the room air The analyses for oxygen content were made with the Van Slyke and Neill constant volume manometric apparatus, oxygen capacity was estimated by means of the spectrophotometer (Ray, Blair and Thomas The final O2 tensions existing in the tonometers were corrected for oxygen lost from the blood and for the effect of temperature change

The results of a characteristic series of experiments are given in Figure 1. The open circles represent the results found in the normal blood and the black those for the polycythemic blood. Both samples were from the same original blood in order to avoid any chemical factors which might influence the results. These data show beyond any doubt that the oxygen-combining power of the two bloods is identical, under the conditions of the experiments. In fact the distribution of the two sets of points coincides quite as well as would points secured from two samples of the same concentration. The variation of any point from the mean curve is within the experimental error of the methods employed

There is a point of distinction which can not be demonstrated in the graph, but was definitely apparent during the course of the experiment. The time required for the concentrated blood to reach an equilibrium was markedly longer than that needed for normal blood. While the normal sample showed its maximal color change in five to ten minutes after the start of equilibration the concentrated needed almost double the time for the same change. This was a natural sequence of the concentration of the blood since diffusion is inversely proportional to viscosity

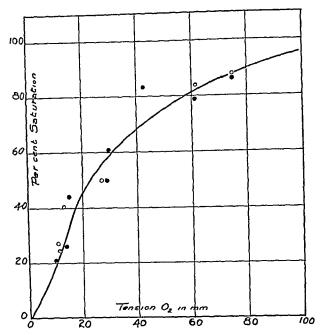


Fig. 1 Dissociation Curve of Normal and Policythemic Bloods
The open circles represent blood of normal hemoglobin concentration and
the black, polycythemic blood

and also the amount of gas moved was greatly increased The effect of both factors will be discussed in detail in a later section

Experiments with the perfused lung

The preceding experiments give no tangible evidence of a difference between the oxygen combining power of the two types of blood. Obviously if a difference does exist it must be sought in other directions. We turned, therefore, to the perfused lung. These experiments were planned to determine if a normal or approximately normal oxygenating apparatus was capable of working with its usual efficiency when the number of cells passing through the tissue per unit of time was increased. That is, if the rate of flow of hemoglobin through the lung is doubled can the respiratory conditions be so adapted as to produce a normal degree of oxygenation? The importance of blood flow through a tissue

has often been stressed, but in this case it is, perhaps, preferable that attention be directed to the amount of hemoglobin as the essential factor

In order to study this effect we were forced to use a perfused lung Preliminary experiments on intact anesthetized dogs gave uncertain results. The results reported in this section were made on the isolated lungs of cats with the conditions of ventilation, blood flow, etc., made to simulate as closely as possible, normal conditions, while allowing full control over every variable. It was thus possible to study the respiratory function without the interference of the generalized compensatory mechanisms which were likely to be brought into play in the intact animal in response to a sudden massive injection of corpuscular cream

A diagram of the apparatus used in perfusing the lung is given in Figure 2 The lungs (1) and heart were removed as rapidly as possible from the anesthetized cat
In order to prevent clot formation during this process the animal was previously injected with heparin A cannula (2) was inserted into the pulmonary artery by way of the right ventricle The tracheal cannula (3) was tied in The outflow cannula (4) was inserted into the left auricle by way of the ventricle and the whole preparation placed in the jar (5) which served as a thorax The metal plate (6) was clamped in place on a vaselined rubber ring, making an air-tight seal The basic negative pressure was controlled by connecting tube (8) to a vacuum and expanding the lungs to approximately their normal size This pressure was controlled by a manometer The fluctuating negative pressure was produced by a pump (7) having a variable stroke and speed A tambour connected at (9) recorded these fluctuations of pressure and so, upon calibration, served as a measure of the tidal air volume This estimation was checked by a water manometer connected at (10) to the tracheal tube The main branch of the tracheal tube went to a pair of mercury valves (11) of the type described by Bailey (5), which allowed passage of air with a minimum of resistance

For ventilating the lung atmospheric air enriched with approximately 5 per cent carbon dioxide was used, in order to maintain the acid-base relationships of the blood. This was stored in a 100 liter spirometer connected at (12) from which it was drawn into a smaller graduated spirometer (13) for use. The composition of the stored gas was checked from time to time to detect changes in O_2 and CO_2 content

The blood used in these experiments was citrated ox blood. It is unfortunate that blood of another species had to be used, but the difficulties associated with collecting a sufficient amount of fresh cats' blood were insurmountable. Careful preliminary experiments were carried out to detect any indication of harmful reactions resulting from the above combination. Even after long periods of perfusion no deleterious effect could be seen other than the appearance of some edema which might have been expected, regardless of the nature of the perfusion fluid

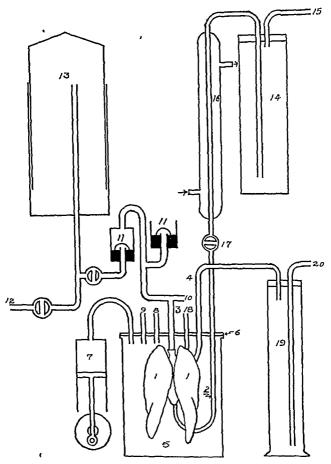


Fig. 2 Apparatus Used in Perfusing the Lung Explanation of the figure is given in the text.

The fact that continued perfusions caused no striking changes in blood flow or ventilation was deemed evidence of the nontoxicity of the blood

The blood to be used in any particular series of experiments was divided in advance into two portions. One, the larger, was centrifugated and most of the supernatant plasma removed. Just previous to the experiment the sample to be used at that time was placed in a large bottle tightly stoppered with a two-hole rubber stopper, one opening of which was connected to a manifold by means of which vacuum, nitrogen and carbon dioxide could be controlled. The other opening of the bottle was tightly closed. The bottle was then evacuated and the resulting from broken by the admission of nitrogen. This process was repeated foam broken by the admission of nitrogen This process was repeated until a vacuum produced no foam, which was taken as an indication that reduction was practically complete In the case of concentrated bloods the process was, of course, much slower, but was accelerated by saturating the blood with carbon dioxide The experiments might be criticized as unphysiological since blood of such low O_2 content was used, but it must be remembered that it was desired to test the ability of the lung to allow access of oxygen to the blood Unless some common base line were adopted this estimation could not be made under exactly comparable conditions The reduced bloods were kept under an atmosphere of nitrogen until they were ready to be introduced into the perfusion apparatus. At this time the sample was forced into the storage bottle of the apparatus (14) by pressure from a hydrogen tank and was kept under an atmosphere of this gas during the course of the experiment. The storage bottle was connected to an 18 liter bottle connected at (15), which in turn was connected to a constant water pressure The blood was forced from the storage bottle through a condenser (16) to bring it to the proper temperature, and thence to the pulmonary artery The pressure in this artery was adjusted by means of the stopcock (17) A record of the pulmonary arterial pressure changes was recorded by a mercury manometer connected at (18) The outflowing blood was caught in a 500 cc graduate (19) which served to measure the total blood flow while the rate of flow was computed from a tambour connected at (20)

Perhaps the feature to be most carefully avoided was the possibility

Perhaps the feature to be most carefully avoided was the possibility of edema. In the preliminary experiments in which perfusion was carried out over a long period of time, edema was obviously present. In the course of these experiments certain signs were discovered whereby it was possible to recognize this condition at its onset and furthermore to estimate the duration of time that an experiment could be carried on without vitiating the results. Early edema was manifested by an increase in ventilation pressure and a decrease in venous pressure. No experiments in which these signs appeared are reported in this paper. In all experiments the period of perfusion was made as brief as was consistent with securing an adequate series of samples.

The analyses for the degree of saturation were made on the Van Slyke apparatus, while the oxygen capacity was estimated from the hemoglobin concentration determined by means of the spectrophotometer Both arterial and venous samples were taken as nearly simultaneously as possible for each reading. Any variation in hemoglobin content served as a check on fluid loss, and hence edema. Obviously care had to be exerted that the storage bottle of blood was constantly agitated in order to avoid sedimentation. In the first experiments we attempted to study both normal and polycythemic bloods in the same lung, but the period of perfusion extended over much too long a time and the practice had to be discontinued in favor of individual experiments for each type of blood

The general nature of the data obtained by this procedure may be illustrated in tabular form by a protocol of a pair of companion experiments

It will be noted that the degree of saturation of the venous blood in the case of the concentrated sample dropped markedly in the later

Protocol of a typical pair of experiments

| Blood | Intrathoracic | Arterial blood

| | Blood pressure | | Intrathoracic pressure | | Arterial blood | | | Venous blood | | | |
|----------------|-------------------|----------------|---------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Experi ment | Time | Arte- | Venous | Inspi ration | Expi ration | Oxygen capacity | Oxygen content | Per cent satu ration | Oxygen capacity | Oxygen content | Per cent satu ration |
| A* | minutes 1 25 | mm Hg 10 | mm H ₁ O | mm H ₂ O - 50 | mm H±O ~20 | polumes per cent 15 34 | volumes per cent 4 32 | 28 | volumes per cent 14 74 | rolumes per cent 14 83 | 100 0 |
| | 3 60 | 20 | 25 | - 40 | -10 | 15 27 | 4 08 | 26 8 | 15 14 | 15 13 | 100 0 |
| | 4 80 | 10 | 25 | -100 | −5 0 | 15 42 | 4 18 | 27 25 | 15 42 | 14 83 | 96 0 |
| | 7 50 | 40 | 45 | - 60 | -30 | lost | 4 08 | _ | 15 42 | 14 90 | 96 5 |
| Bţ | 1 00 | 23 | 24 | - 80 | -40 | 39 25 | 1 42 | 3 60 | 37 59 | 26 82 | 71 4 |
| | 3 20 | 23 | 24 | -110 | -40 | 40 59 | 1 42 | 3 50 | 37 37 | 24 58 | 66 0 |
| | 6 50 | 23 | 24 | -110 | -40 | 39 39 | 1 42 | 3 60 | 38 83 | 21 88 | 56 3 |

^{*}Experiment A Tidal air, 28 cc per respiration Rate of respiration, 40 per minute Lung capacity, 196 cc Average rate of blood flow, 35 cc per minute

[†] Experiment B Tidal air, 30 cc. per respiration Rate of respiration 20 per minute Lung capacity, 166 cc Average rate of blood flow, 40 cc, per minute

readings As far as we could determine this was not due to any change in the lung tissue but rather to a continually diminishing tension of oxygen in the alveolar air resulting from the demands of the concentrated blood Spectrophotometric evidence proved, in addition, that the hemoglobin had retained its ability to combine with oxygen. The slight variations noted in oxygen capacity are without doubt due to sedimentation, which could not be completely controlled.

The results are summarized in Figure 3 in which the crosses represent the degree of saturation of the normal blood and the circles that of the concentrated blood. It will be noted that in every case the normal blood was oxygenated completely or almost completely, which is exactly what one would predict for the oxygen tensions used and the rate at which the blood was flowing through the lungs. The results indicate clearly the efficiency of the perfusion system

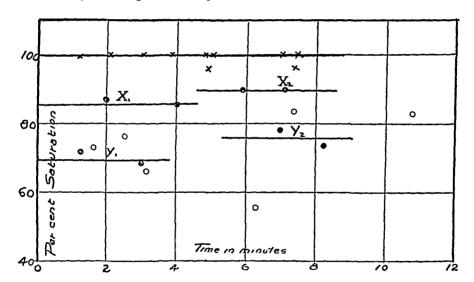


Fig 3 Comparative Results of Perfusing the Lungs with Normal and Polycythemic Blood

Crosses represent normal blood, the circles, polycythemic Explanations of curves X_1 , X_2 , Y_1 and Y_2 are given in the text

In the concentrated blood on the other hand, a normal saturation was never attained. In spite of the fact that the lungs were to all intents and purposes normal, i.e. allowed oxygenation of normal blood, it is evident that with the usual ventilation and blood flow the system is incapable of functioning adequately. The incapacity of the system may be noted in a very simple manner. In two experiments, represented by curves X and Y, an attempt was made to reproduce what would be the normal compensatory reaction of an animal, i.e. the minute volume of respiration was increased. These results are of particular significance

since they show beyond question that the difficulty is not referable to any faults of the apparatus. In the routine experiments ventilation was within the normal resting limits defined by Scott (6) and by Churchill (7), whose observations agreed with our own measurements. It was further noted that hyperpnea, produced by stimulation of the sciatic previous to removing the heart and lung, raised the ventilation to about twice its resting value. Accordingly the minute volume was doubled in order to test the effect of a normal degree of hyperpnea.

The ventilation in the section of the first curve, designated as X_1 , was 700 cc per minute, which is within the normal range. At point X_2 the ventilation was increased to 1330 cc per minute. The increase in saturation is, however, far from proportional to the increase in ventilation, since the change is only from 87 to 90 per cent, which would correspond to a change in alveolar O_2 tension of about 5 millimeters

The results plotted in curve Y are more striking The original ventilation, represented by section Y₁ of the curve, was 1200 cc per minute while in the section Y₂ the volume was increased to 2280 cc. per minute In this case we have started with a moderate hyperpnea and increased the ventilation 190 per cent. In spite of this oxygen increase the saturation of the blood changes only from 70 to 77 per cent, equiva lent, approximately, to 9 mm of O It is obvious that if this represents the proportionality between ventilation and saturation, a tremendous hyperpnea would be required to produce a normal condition in the venous blood It is conceivable that the oxygen saturation of the blood failed to increase under the unphysiological artificial conditions of these experiments because forced expiration did not have its usual effect, that no matter what the minute volume might be, the alveoli were incompletely aerated and therefore contained air with an unusually low oxygen tension In order to test the validity of such a criticism the mode of attack was changed Instead of increasing the amount of air sucked into the lungs at each respiration the amount of oxygen in the air was increased Under these circumstances the problem of accumulation of nitrogen in the alveoli was eliminated and oxygen saturation depended only upon the rate of diffusion into the blood and subsequent oxygenation accordance with this scheme the ventilation gas mixture was changed to 94 per cent oxygen and 6 per cent carbon dioxide The results proved definitely that even such a concentration of oxygen was barely adequate to approximate normal conditions, with this tension the average saturation was only 91 per cent This figure indicates that it is about 6 to 7 times as difficult to oxygenate concentrated blood as it is to oxygenate normal blood

DISCUSSION

Certain definite facts stand out as the result of the above experiments A With this method blood of normal concentration is adequately

oxygenated B Increasing the number of cells, and consequently the amount of hemoglobin passing through the lung tissue per minute, results in inadequate oxygenation C Doubling the amount of ventilation results in only a minor change in the saturation of concentrated blood D Only when the oxygen tension of the inspired gas is increased to over six times that of the normal atmosphere does the saturation approximate normal

The question arises as to what physiological reactions are responsible for these differences between bloods of normal and high concentration. The distinction appears to be inherent in the character of the blood and not referable to the conditions of the experiment, since normal blood behaves as it does when it is oxygenated in the physiological manner. The lungs function efficiently as an oxygenating device. In fact, as the blood used was nearly completely reduced the tissue was called upon to do more work than would ordinarily be the case in vivo. The use of blood from another species seems to have caused no toxic effects. On the basis of these observations we are inclined, therefore, to dismiss the idea that there was any change in the lung tissue per se

The problem therefore resolves itself into a discussion of what factors in the blood or respiratory mechanism act, either independently or together, to produce the result found. The outstanding factor is perhaps the increased amount of hemoglobin passing through the lungs per minute. The demand for oxygen increases directly as the concentration of hemoglobin. In consequence, oxygen tension in the alveoli and the degree of oxygenation of the blood should diminish as the perfusion progresses. That this is the case is illustrated by the experiment shown in Experiment B, Table I, where the saturation decreased from 71 to 56 per cent during the period of measurement.

This might afford an adequate explanation of the whole phenomenon, were it not for the fact that increased ventilation of the lungs proved insufficient to produce normal oxygenation and also that it was found necessary to increase the oxygen tension to seven times that of normal before full saturation was even approximated In the case of the experiments in which the ventilation was increased, the change in the degree of saturation was by no means proportional to the increase in the minute volume of respiration The increased movement of air failed to change the tension of alveolar oxygen to any marked extent Perhaps more significant is the high pressure necessary to drive a sufficient amount of oxygen into the blood In other words, the rate of diffusion of oxygen is reduced in the case of the more concentrated blood This is exactly what Harrop and Heath (8) found in polycythemic individuals investigators ascribe this change to alteration of the pulmonary epi-This cannot be said to be true in our experiments, inasmuch as the lungs behaved in a normal manner when perfused with blood

containing a low concentration of cells. It is obvious, therefore, that the reason for the faulty oxygenation of the blood must be sought elsewhere. It will be recalled that in the experiments upon the dissociation curves a longer time was needed for complete equilibration of the concentrated blood. It would seem, therefore, that a certain fraction of the unsaturation can be attributed to the character of the concentrated blood itself.

Still another factor to be considered is the reaction which occurs in the capillaries. In the table cited it will be noted that the amount of blood flowing through the system is approximately the same in both experiments. The viscosity of the concentrated blood is much greater than normal, yet if the second readings of both types of experiments are compared it will be noted that the same pressure produces the same flow. The simplest explanation that can be suggested for this adjustment is dilatation of the smaller vessels. The appearance of the lungs in the two cases certainly substantiated this view. If such a compensation involved the alveolar capillaries a second reason for the impairment of oxygen diffusion is found in the increased distance the gas must pass in order to complete the process of oxygenation. In addition to this effect, the engorgement of the vessels would decrease the alveolar space, i.e., the vital capacity, thereby adding to the factors which promote anovemia

SUMMARY

Studies of the dissociation curves of normal and artificial polycythemic bloods, show no difference in the tension of oxygen required to produce a given saturation. When these types of blood are oxygenated by the perfused lung the normal blood becomes completely oxygenated while the concentrated blood is never fully saturated. Increasing the oxygen tension increases the saturation of the concentrated blood.

The difference between the two bloods is ascribed to the greater rate at which hemoglobin in the polycythemic blood passes through the lungs, coupled with a delayed diffusion resulting from capillary dilatation

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ELECTROLYTES IN HUMAN TISSUE III A COMPARISON OF NORMAL HEARTS WITH HEARTS SHOWING CONGESTIVE HEART FAILURE¹

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(Received for publication June 30 1933)

Previous studies from Vanderbilt Medical School (Harrison, Pilcher and Ewing, 1930) (Calhoun, Cullen, Clark, and Harrison, 1930) have shown that the potassium content of heart muscle may be diminished in persons dying with congestive heart failure. The present study was planned to investigate the concentration of other important electrolytes under the same conditions and in normal hearts, i.e., hearts from persons killed in accidents. However, when the pathologic reports were analysed it was found necessary to divide the material into three groups—(1) Normal hearts, (2) an intermediate group of hearts from fatal accidents which show pathologic evidence of cardiac disease, and (3) hearts from persons dying with congestive heart failure. See Table I

Seventeen hearts, 5 in Group 1, 4 in Group 2, and 8 in Group 3, were analysed for water content, calcium, magnesium, phosphorus, potassium and sodium

The methods used in this study are those described elsewhere (Cullen and Wilkins, 1933) Special precautions were taken to determine accurately the water content of the tissues. The samples, which were shipped, were sealed in air tight bottles, and any liquid which came out of the tissues during transit was included in the entire sample which was weighed and dried.

RESULTS

The determined values, in most cases based on duplicate analyses, for water, total phosphorus, potassium, sodium, calcium and magnesium are given in terms of wet muscle in Table II In order to compare the osmotic relationship of the electrolytes in the tissue, the results were calculated to milliequivalents per kilo tissue water, as was done by Van Slyke, Wu and McLean (1923) for blood electrolytes In this

¹ The experimental data in this report are taken from a thesis submitted by Walter E Wilkins in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate School of Vanderbilt University

TABLE I
Individual case data

| Case number | Sex | Age | Heart weight | Chief diagnosis and cause of death |
|----------------|-----|-------|-----------------|--|
| | | years | grams | |
| Group 1 | | | _ | |
| 1 | M | 34 | | Bullet wound of abdomen, hemorrhage, heart normal |
| 2 | M | 24 | 400 | Bullet wound of head, heart normal |
| 3 | M | 25 | 265 | Fracture of skull, ruptured liver and kidney, heart normal |
| 4 | M | 33 | 400 | Bullet wound through lungs and heart, heart normal |
| 5 | M | 25 | | Bullet wound of abdomen, hemorrhage, heart normal |
| Group 2 | | | | |
| 6 | M | 38 | 535 | Fracture of skull |
| 7 | M | 31 | | Bullet wound of abdomen, hemorrhage |
| 8 | М | 49 | 450 | Lacerations of head, dislocation of hip, (chloroform anesthesia) toxic hepatitis, myocardial hypertrophy, generalized arteriosclerosis |
| 9 | M | | 400 | Multiple comminuted fractures of the pelvis, hemorrhage, alcoholic intoxication, generalized arteriosclerosis |
| Group 3 | | | | alcoholic intoxication, generalized arrefroscierosis |
| 10 | M | 25 | | Myocardial hypertrophy and dilatation, adhesive peri- carditis |
| 11 | M | 33 | 770 | Myocardial hypertrophy and dilatation, syphilitic aortitis and insufficiency |
| 12 | F | 23 | 450 | Myocardial hypertrophy and dilatation, syphilitic myo- carditis |
| 13 | М | 72 | 400 | Myocardial hypertrophy, generalized arteriosclerosis |
| 14 | M | 40 | 860 | Myocardial hypertrophy and dilatation, generalized arterio- sclerosis |
| 15 | F | 45 | 740 | Myocardial hypertrophy and dilatation, generalized arterio- sclerosis |
| 16 | М | 69 | 550 | Myocardial hypertrophy and dilatation, generalized arterio- sclerosis |
| 17 | М | 55 | 800 | Myocardial hypertrophy and dilatation, generalized arteriosclerosis |

calculation one millimol of phosphorus is considered one milliequivalent (see Peters and Van Slyke (1931), p 1102). The average, maximum and minimum values for the several elements are summarized in Table III. In addition, in this table, is given a similar summary based on dry weight because much of the previous work has been reported in dry weight.

Water

Domagk (1924) and Scott (1931-a) have shown that the water content of the left ventricles of persons who died of tuberculosis was greater than that of the left ventricles of persons dying from a variety of other diseases. Apparently neither of these workers determined the water content of the right ventricles. Scott (1930, 1931-a) found no difference in the average water content of the left ventricles of cardiac heart and that from a number of persons who died from other diseases

TABLE II

Inorganic constituents of tentricles of normal and diseased hearts

| | ı | Right ventricle Left ventricle | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------|--------------|--------------------------------|------------|-----------|----------|--------------|------------------|--------------|------------|-------------|-----|--------------|
| Per 100 grams wet tissue | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Case | OtH | P | L. | Na | Ca | Mg | H _t O | P | K. | Na | Ca | Mg |
| number | grams | mgm | mgm | mgm | mgm | mgm | grams | mgm | mgm | mgm | mgm | mgm |
| | | | | | No | rmals | | | | | | |
| 1 | 80 1 | 203 | 229 | 96 | 8 2 | 21 8 | 78 1 | 242 | 324 | 73 | 66 | 23 : |
| 2 | 804 | 164 | 259 | 133 | 93 | 18 2 | 79 5 | 184 | 280 | 114 | 95 | 18 |
| 3 | 769 | 180 | 285 | 111 | 7.5 | 20 3 | 78 0 | 199 | 325 | 98 | 63 | 20 · |
| 4 | 81 2 | 142 | 220 | 112 83 | 70 59 | 16 4 22 3 | 80 1 | 179 213 | 302 326 | 97 | 62 | 22 |
| 5 | 77 6 | 195 | 280 | 83 | 29 | 22 3 | 78 8 | 213 | 320 | 70 | 00 | 22 |
| Average | 792 | 177 | 255 | 107 | 76 | 198 | 789 | 203 | -311 \ | 92 | 69 | 20 |
| | | | | | Inter | medial | e | | | | | |
| 6 | 80 9 | 137 | 205 | 148 | 8 2 | 15 0 | 798 | 177 | 262 | 118 | 63 | 18 |
| 7 | 83 7 | 159 | 201 | 181 | 62 | 14 6 | 80 9 | 213 | 332 | 106 | 64 | 20 |
| 8 | 83 0 | 146 | 178 | 130 | 92 | 15 7 | 80 3 | 154 | 217 | 81 | 64 | 16 |
| 9 | 790 | 146 | 203 | 138 | 94 | 15 8 | 78 9 | 197 | 326 | 101 | 69 | 19 |
| Average | 817 | 147 | 197 | 149 | 83 | 15 3 | 80 0 | 185 | 284 | 102 | 65 | 18 |
| | | | | | Са | rdiacs | · | · | · | | · | <u> </u> |
| 10 | 82 0 | 143 | 223 | 129 | 64 | 15 1 | 82 1 | 149 | 237 | 128 | 56 | 15 |
| 11 | 823 | 152 | 209 | 155 | 54 | 138 | 80 4 | 178 | 226 | 115 | 44 | 15 |
| 12 | 83 6 | 122 | 134 | 186 | 89 | 11 6 | 819 | 142 | 209 | 154 | 67 | 14 |
| 13 | 82 9 | 150 | 174 | 153 | 99 | 14 6 | 81 5 | 176 | 236 | 132 | 109 | 15 |
| 14 | 82 4 | 142 | 180 | 147 | 72 | } | 80 4 | 173 | 277 | 92 | 56 | 1 |
| 15 16 | 81 4 78 2 | 145 | 181 235 | 148 | 87 | 1.42 | 79 1 | 170 | 248 | 102 | 50 | 1.0 |
| 17 | 793 | 183 | 265 | 101 | 45 | 14 6 | 78 9 79 4 | 185 | 325 | 100 | 71 | 18 |
| Average | 81.5 | 149 | 200 | 142 | 71 | 147 | 80 5 | -{ | 258 | | | - |
| reverage | 01.5 | 177 | 1 200 | 142 | 1/1 | 141 | כעם ון | 170 | 238 | 115 | 6.2 | 15 |

In the present study there is no evidence from the 5 normal hearts of a consistent variation in water content between right and left ventricles, but for the diseased group there is a definite tendency for each right ventricle to have a higher water content, by about 1 per cent, than that of the left from the same heart. Moreover, the heart from persons dying with congestive heart failure showed an average of about 2 3 per cent more water in the right ventricles and about 1 6 per cent more in the left ventricles than did the normal hearts. These changes stand out more emphatically when stated in terms of percentage solids. This

TABLE III

Averages of inorganic constituents of ventricles calculated on basis of dry-weight and of tissue

water

| Group | Mgm per 100 g | rams dry tissue | m Eq per kilo tissue H O | | |
|---|----------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|----------------------|--|
| Стопр | Right ventricle | Left ventricle | Right ventricle | Left ventricle | |
| | Pho | sphorus | · | | |
| Normal average Intermediate average Cardiac average | 852 811 808 | 962 926 870 | 72 58 59 | 83 74 68 | |
| | Pol | assıum | · | | |
| Normal average Intermediate average Cardiac average | 1225 1081 1075 | 1475 1422 1314 | 83 61 63 | 100 91 82 | |
| | Se | odium | | | |
| Normal average Intermediate average Cardiac average | 521 828 786 | 436 508 594 | 58 79 76 | 51 55 62 | |
| | Ca | lcıum | · | | |
| Normal average Intermediate average Cardiac average | 36 9 45 0 38 8 | 32 7 29 9 33 4 | 4 8 5 1 4 3 | 4 4 4 1 3 9 | |
| | Мая | nesum | | | |
| Normal average Intermediate average Cardiac average | 95 4 84 0 79 0 | 95 0 93 5 82 0 | 20 6 15 4 14 9 | 21 0 19 2 16 2 | |

means a decrease from normal of 11 per cent of the total solids in the right ventricles and of 7.5 per cent in the left ventricles. Apparently the right ventricle shows a greater susceptibility to increase in water content or decrease in solids than does the left ventricle.

This is in agreement with the findings of Calhoun, Cullen, Clarke and Harrison (1930) who found that right and left ventricles in patients who died with congestive heart failure showed an increase in water content over the hearts of patients who died from a variety of other diseases. It is also of interest to note that the two right ventricles which contained the most water were also high in sodium. Of these, one showed also the lowest potassium content on any basis of calculation. This right

ventricle (case number 12), was also the lowest in magnesium and phosphorus per unit of wet weight. These facts indicate a definite tendency toward edema in diseased heart muscle, especially that of the right ventricle.

Phosphorus

The figures for phosphorus represent total phosphorus in each case, no attempt was made to determine the phosphorus fractions

Scott (1931 a) reported a large series of phosphorus determinations on the left ventricles of persons who died with a variety of diseases and a group who died of tuberculosis. The following is a summary of his values.

| | Maximum | Misimum | Mean |
|----------------------------------|------------|--|------------|
| General diseases Tuberculosis | 733 193 | 7 100 grams of fresh lissu 139 129 | 176 153 |

In the present normal group the left ventricles contained an average of about 15 per cent more phosphorus than did the right. In the group of persons who died with congestive heart failure the left ventricles contained an average of about 14 per cent more phosphorus than the right. Both the right and left ventricles of the persons who died with congestive heart failure contained an average of about 16 per cent less phosphorus than did the corresponding ventricles of the normal group. These findings are in agreement with those of Laszlo (1928) who noted a decreased amount of phosphorus in the skeletal and cardiac muscles of persons who died with cardiac disease.

Potassium

In this study the individual left ventricles of each group showed without exception a higher concentration of potassium than did the right. This contrasts with the fact that the left ventricles of each group without exception showed a lower content of sodium than did the right. One case with extreme congestion of the lungs showed very low values for potassium and high values for sodium in both ventricles, but especially in the right.

When these values are expressed in milliequivalents per kilo of muscle water, the total concentration of sodium plus potassium in the right ventricles is of the same order as that of the left ventricles

The hearts of individuals who died with congestive heart failure were poorer in potassium and richer in sodium than those of the normal control group. The figures show that there was some degree of overlapping, but the averages show a definite and appreciable difference

This is true when the concentrations are expressed in milligrams per 100 grams of fresh tissue, milligrams per 100 grams of dried tissue, and in milliequivalents per kilo of tissue water

These findings, in respect to potassium, confirm, with a different analytical method, those of Harrison, Pilcher and Ewing (1930), and those of Calhoun, Cullen, Clarke and Harrison (1930). The latter authors believe that overwork causes loss of potassium from cardiac muscle and that this loss is one of the predisposing factors to cardiac fatigue and failure. They also studied a number of different tissues from individuals who died of a variety of diseases, and suggest that potassium loss in congestive heart failure is not confined to the heart and skeletal muscle, but apparently holds for several other types of tissue. Later Calhoun, Cullen and Harrison (1930) found that overwork of the muscles of one leg of dogs, produced by continual stimulation of the sciatic nerve causing the leg to lift a weight, usually leads to a diminished content of potassium in the muscles as compared with those of the opposite unstimulated leg

Harrison, Pilcher, and Ewing (1930) suggested the possibility that loss of potassium from the heart muscle is compensated for by an increase in one or more of the other basic elements. The present study shows that there is a "compensation" by sodium

Scott (1931-b) who has made the most extensive study of the inorganic substances in human left ventricle heart muscle, failed to find a significant diminution of potassium in the left ventricles of persons who died of congestive heart failure compared with the left ventricles of persons who died from a variety of other diseases. He found highly variable amounts of both sodium and potassium in both groups. His average values for potassium in the left ventricle are much lower than those of other authors, including ourselves.

The discrepancy between Scott's values (1931-b) for potassium and the present results has been disturbing. The possibility that this is due to a difference in ashing is suggested by the following observations. When the present investigation was begun, a number of tissues were ashed in somewhat the same manner as were those of Scott, and results for potassium similar to his were obtained. These results were low as compared with the previous studies in this laboratory, and the ashing technic was scrutinized. It was found that if ashing were done in the muffle furnace without H₂SO₄, the potassium values were low. When a small amount of H₂SO₄ was added before ashing the duplicate ashings gave potassium figures which were higher, which checked closely, and which were within the range of those previously obtained when the wet ashing technic was used. Blanks were, of course, run under both sets of conditions.

In a more recent study with an improved method Scott (1931-c) reported much higher values for potassium in the left ventricles of a large number of hearts than he reported in the three previous studies. These later values are more nearly within the range of ours

Sodrum

Few figures are available on the sodium content of the various soft tissues, although its concentration in the blood has been the object of numerous investigations

In the human, sodium appears to be present in much greater concentrations in the extracellular fluids than in any of the cells. In this respect it differs from potassium and magnesium, which appear in greater concentrations in the cellular structures. Of the anions, chloride appears to vary with sodium, while phosphate varies with potassium.

Loeb, Atchley and Palmer (1922) have shown that edema fluids may contain approximately the same concentration of sodium as blood serum. It follows that even a slight increase in the water content of a tissue may be accompanied by an appreciable increase in sodium.

In the present study the sodium content of the right and left ventricles of seventeen human hearts was determined. In all seventeen cases, with two exceptions, the right ventricles contained decidedly more sodium than did the left ventricles. In every instance, the opposite was true of potassium.

In both ventricles the normal hearts showed a higher average content of potassium than did the corresponding ventricles of persons who died with congestive heart failure. Just the reverse was the case with sodium. There was some overlapping with reference to sodium as well as with potassium, but most of the individual cases, as well as the averages, showed a definite increase in the sodium content of both ventricles of the persons who died with congestive heart failure.

The four left ventricles which had the highest potassium content showed the lowest values for sodium

Scott (1930) reported a number of instances in which the normal K/Na ratios were almost reversed in the left ventricle. We found some tendency toward such a reversal in both ventricles of several persons who died with congestive heart failure, but found no such change in any heart in the normal group

Scott's averages for the sodium content of the left ventricles are higher than those yielded by the present study. In view of the fact that his values for sodium were calculated by difference, his higher figures for this element may have been due to his failure to recover all of the potassium. This point has been discussed in the section on potassium.

Calcium and magnesium

Although the significance of changes in calcium concentration in the blood has been studied intensively little is known concerning changes of calcium in tissue. Little is known concerning the importance of magnesium in either blood or tissue. Magnesium is essentially a tissue cation, calcium is in greater concentration in serum and other extracellular.

fluids than it is in most soft tissues. Katz showed that human skeletal muscle contained about 7.5 mgm per cent of calcium and 21 mgm of magnesium per 100 grams fresh muscle. On a basis of milliequivalents this gives a Ca. Mg ratio of about 1–4. Scott found in the left ventricles of 14 hearts from patients with general disease an average of 8 mgm of calcium and 17.4 mgm of magnesium per 100 grams fresh tissue and in 14 hearts from patients dying with tuberculosis 9.0 mgm calcium and 16 mgm magnesium.

In another study (Cullen, Wilkins and Harrison (1933)) we found in autopsies from general disease that the right ventricles average 7 3 mgm per cent of calcium and 18 4 mgm per cent magnesium, and the left ventricles averaged 6 4 mgm per cent calcium and 21 mgm per cent magnesium. In the present study 15 of the 17 hearts show slightly less calcium and more magnesium in the left ventricle than in the right

The variation in calcium content in both normal and diseased hearts is so great that, with the small number of cases, it is impossible to state whether or not there is less calcium in the diseased heart than in the normal. There is a tendency for the abnormal hearts to show a decrease in calcium proportional to the decrease in total solids which suggests that the calcium is related to the tissue protein in the same manner that it is related to serum protein. Scott, however, found no significant difference between the calcium content of the left ventricles of patients dying of heart failure and of those dying from other diseases.

In most cases the hearts showing cardiac disease have a decidedly lower magnesium content than do the normal hearts

In general the variations of magnesium content parallel those of potassium and phosphorus $% \left(1\right) =\left(1\right) +\left(1\right) +$

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Total base determinations, as such, were not made on this group of tissues, but were calculated from the values for the individual bases. We found, in a former study, that some calcium and magnesium failed to come through during the removal of phosphate by the method of Stadie and Ross (1925). This fact has also been noted by Brown and Shohl (1931).

In all of the normal group the concentration of total bases (in milliequivalents per kilo of tissue water) was higher in the left ventricle than in the right, but both were within the same general range

The right ventricles of the normal hearts show an average of 167 and the left ventricles an average of 176 milliequivalents per kilo of tissue water. The hearts from persons who died with congestive heart failure contained an average of 159 milliequivalents per kilo of tissue water in the right ventricles and 166 in the left. Thus the latter group showed in both ventricles a slight diminution in total base as compared with the normal controls.

Van Slyke Wu and McLean (1923) have pointed out that the osmolar concentration of total electrolytes in the water of blood plasma and cells is practically equal despite the differences in the concentrations of the individual ions. They found, in a typical case, 162 milliequivalents of base per kilo of serum water and 174 per kilo of red blood cell water Gamble, Ross and Tisdall (1923) have expressed the belief that this close relationship holds also for the cell water of muscles and probably for other tissues of the body. The present results support this view

The total electrolyte concentration in the tissue is of importance in relation to the osmotic conditions existing there. Although the data given above do not give any direct evidence as to the cause of the shift in diseased tissue, it is significant that it is precisely what would be expected if the permeability of the tissue were increased. Then sodium would diffuse into the tissue cells from its higher concentration in extracellular fluids, and potassium, magnesium and phosphates would diffuse out from their higher concentration in the cells. Calcium, approximately equal in all fluids, would show little change. The relations between potassium, phosphorus and sodium are shown graphically in Figure 1. It is at once apparent that potassium and phosphorus parallel each other and that sodium fluctuates regularly in the opposite direction to potassium and phosphorus.

The question of the ratio of the individual elements to each other is of course important and the average ratios of P/K and K/Na are given in Table IV

TABLE IV Ratio of potassium to phosphorus and sodium based on concentration per kilo tissue water

| | Millio Millio | nols P | Milliequivalents L Milliequivalents Na | | |
|----------------------|------------------|-----------|---|-----------|--|
| | Right | Left | Right | Left | |
| | ventricle | ventricle | ventricle | ventricle | |
| Normai average | 0 88 | 0 83 | 1 45 | 2 05 | |
| Intermediate average | 0 96 | 0 82 | 0 78 | 1 65 | |
| Cardiac average | 0 96 | 0 84 | 0 88 | 1 39 | |

The data demonstrates unmistakably a real difference in the concentration of the important electrolytes in the two ventricles. It is important that both potassium and phosphorus, which are known to be involved in the buffer mechanism of muscle are in the muscle which has the greatest work load. However, until the phosphorus distribution in these conditions is known, it is undesirable to speculate further

We wish to acknowledge our indebtedness to Dr. Richard Austin of the University of Cincinnati, Drs. George M. Leiby and Kenneth M. Lynch of the Medical College of the State of South Carolina. Dr. C. W.

Averages for P. K. and Na

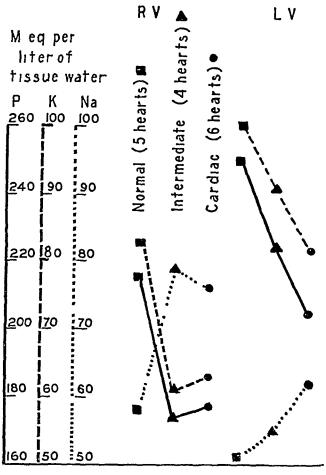


Fig i

Muchlberger of the Coroner's Laboratory, Cook County Morgue, Chicago, and to the Department of Pathology of the Vanderbilt School of Medicine, for furnishing us the tissues used in this study

SUMMARY

- 1 The right and left ventricles of seventeen human hearts were analyzed for water, phosphorus, sodium, potassium, magnesium and calcium. Of these hearts, five were normal, four were from persons who had cardiac disease but who died from other causes, and eight were from persons who died with congestive heart failure.
- 2 The water content of the diseased right ventricle tends to be slightly higher than that of the left ventricle. The water content of both ventricles of hearts from persons who died with congestive heart failure was found to be increased.

3 The normal left ventricle contains more total phosphorus and more potassium than the right. Both ventricles of diseased hearts showed a decrease in total phosphorus and potassium

4 The normal right ventricle contains more sodium than the normal left ventricle. Sodium was increased in both ventricles of persons who

died with congestive heart failure

5 Usually the right ventricle contains a slightly higher concentration of calcium than does the left ventricle. No consistent variations were found in the calcium content of the ventricles of individuals who died with congestive heart failure.

6 Both the normal and diseased left ventricles were richer in magnesium than the corresponding right ventricles Both ventricles of the

diseased hearts showed a diminution in magnesium

7 The sums of the individual bases when calculated in milliequivalents per kilo of tissue water show that the two ventricles do not differ essentially in their content of total base

8 The K/Na ratio in the normal left ventricle is higher than in the normal right ventricle. Both ventricles of the diseased hearts showed

a decrease in the K/Na ratio

9 The P/K ratio was somewhat higher in the right ventricle than in the left. The diseased hearts had nearly the same P/K ratios in both ventricles as did the normal hearts, showing that the former had a proportionate decrease in phosphorus and potassium

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THE CISTERNAL PRESSURE IN CONGESTIVE HEART FAILURE AND ITS BEARING ON ORTHOPNEA

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(Received for publication July 12 1933)

Various theories concerning the cause of orthopnea have been advanced, but sufficient proof for accepting any one explanation of this phenomenon has not been offered

As an excellent review of the literature on orthopnea has been given by Ernstene and Blumgart (1), only a few of the theories will be mentioned here Sahli (2) thought that the greater use of the accessory muscles of respiration, the accumulation of blood in the lower extremities leading to diminished pulmonary congestion, and a decrease in the work of the heart along with the relief of venous congestion of the brain and of the respiratory center by the action of gravity were the fundamental factors responsible for the sitting posture in orthopnea Haldane, Meakins and Priestly (3) expressed the belief that a decrease in anoxemia of the respiratory center and a better oxygenation of the arterial blood leaving the lungs were largely responsible for the greater comfort in breathing that a patient with cardiac disease exhibits in the upright position

Christie and Beams (4) reported careful studies of the vital capacity of a large number of normal subjects and of patients with cardiac disease. They found that, although the vital capacity was decreased when the normal person went from sitting to prone position, this decrease was much greater in patients with cardiac disease accompanied by orthopnea. They, therefore, inferred that the diminished vital capacity of the lungs in the prone position is the main cause of orthopnea.

Ernstene and Blumgart (1), however, observed orthopnea of necessity in patients in whom the vital capacity of the lungs was not significantly increased by changing from the recumbent to the sitting position. They demonstrated furthermore a parallelism between the height of venous pressure and the degree of orthopnea in twenty two patients with uncomplicated myocardial failure. They were inclined to the view that lowering of cerebral venous pressure in the sitting posture is the primary factor in reducing the respiratory discomfort.

In a recent series of studies Harrison (5) demonstrated an increase in cerebrospinal fluid pressure in patients with cardiac failure and the parallelism of venous and spinal fluid pressure in this condition. He

also observed the effect of treating by means of spinal drainage patients having congestive heart failure. It was noted in observations not yet published that after spinal drainage was performed on individuals with orthopnea many of these patients were able to breathe more comfortably in the recumbent position, although the vital capacity of the lungs had not been significantly altered by this procedure. A study was also made of the cisternal pressure in the upright and recumbent positions in one normal individual, and in one patient with congestive heart failure, and the relation of cisternal pressure to orthopnea was discussed. In the present paper a larger group of such studies is reported.

The cisternal pressure in patients without cardiac disease

While performing routine lumbar punctures on patients suspected of having syphilis an opportunity was offered to measure the cisternal pressure and the spinal fluid pressure in the sitting and prone positions in five patients, none of whom had any evidence of cardiac disease A U-shaped glass manometer filled with normal saline was used to make the readings of cisternal pressure. The readings of lumbar spinal fluid pressure were taken with an Ayer water manometer. Venous pressures were determined by the direct method of Moritz and Tabora observing the usual precautions. The vital capacity, the arterial blood pressure, and the pulse and respiration rates were likewise recorded in both positions. (Table 1.)

The systemic venous pressure, as measured at the elbow, was found to be slightly higher in the upright than in the recumbent position. The lumbar spinal fluid pressure was much greater in the sitting position. The cisternal pressure (which ranged from -22 to +17) was on the other hand much lower in the sitting position, and in one individual was below zero. The average arterial blood pressure and pulse rate were slightly greater in the sitting position, but neither the blood pressure nor pulse or respiration rates showed marked consistent changes, on the other hand in all instances the vital capacity was slightly increased in the sitting position.

The cisternal pressure in patients with congestive heart failure

An opportunity was offered to carry out similar observations on five patients who had either syphilitic aortic insufficiency or hypertensive heart disease with congestive failure, while attempts were being made to give relief by spinal drainage. Similar measurements were made in the manner described above. All observations on any one patient were performed on the same day ¹ (Table 2)

¹ The cisternal pressure recorded was slightly lower in some instances and the spinal fluid pressure lower in others than they should have been because in some cases the spinal fluid pressure was taken first while in others the cisternal pressure was measured first

TABLE 1
Control group

| | | | | | | | | | | | | Į | 1 | ļ |
|----------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|-------|----------|----------------|--------------------------|-------|-----|------------------|---------|
| | Ven | Venous pressure | Spinal | Spinal fluid pressure | Clste | Cisternal pressure † | Vital | <u>j</u> | Arterial blood | terial blood pressure | Pulse | g | Respi rations | ا چے۔ ا |
| | P+ | \$\$ | Ā | S | Ъ | S | a, | S) | ч | S | ρ. | ο | Ω, | S |
| | mm H ₁ O | mm H 0 | H10 mm H 0 mm 1130 | OrH mm | mm H ₂ 0 | mm HsO | ะ | ะ | mm. Hg | mm IIg | | | Ī | |
| J R Syphilis | 65 | 001 | 99 | 320 | 125 | 01 | 2800 | 2900 | 108/90 | 130/100 | 72 | 76 | 24 | 20 |
| T H Catarrhal jaundice | 20 | 22 | 125 | 430 | 102 | 15 | 1900 | 2000 | 100/64 | 110/70 | 8 | 92 | 2 | 74 |
| W F Duodenal ulcer | 45 | 8 | S | 470 | 65 | -22 | 3300 | 3450 | 108/80 | 106/80 | 88 | 100 | 16 | 20 |
| FO Duodenal ulcer | 53 | 2 | 55 | 380 | 92 | 17 | 2200 | 2300 | 108/76 | 108/85 | 102 | 100 | 20 | 20 |
| S.S Arsphenamine hepatitis | 20 | 20 | 140 | 450 | 110 | 15 | 3450 | 3550 | 104/60 | 106/76 | 02 | 74 | 12 | 16 |
| Average | 52 | 74 | 88 | 406 | 93 | - | 2730 | 2840 | 105/74 | 2730 2840 105/74 112/82 | 82 | 88 | 18 | 20 |
| | | | | | | | 1 | | | | | | 1 | l |

* P—prone S—sitting † Note the difference in the cisternal pressure in the two positions in each patient

TABLE 2
Congestive heart failure group

| | | | | | | | | | | 1 | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|---|--|------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| | Ven | Venous pressure | Spinal pres | Spinal fluid pressure | Cisternal pressure † | rnal ire† | Vital capacity | ity. | Arteria | Arterial blood pressure | Pu | Pulse | Res | Respi- rations |
| | * 凸 | * | щ | S | Ъ | S | ф | လ | д | s | <u>a</u> | S | г | ß |
| D H Syphilitic aortic insufficiency T W Hypertensive heart disease H L Hypertensive heart disease F W Hypertensive heart disease L P Syphilitic aortic insufficiency Average | mm H ₂ O 215 310 200 310 335 274 | mm H ₂ O 230 355 260 345 375 313 | mm H ₂ O 320 400 320 360 450 374 | mm H ₂ O 415 680 640 480 660 575 | mm H ₂ O 310 355 295 365 360 337 | mm H ₂ O 50 100 65 80 110 | 66 900 1200 1000 1700 1100 | ec 1200 1400 1100 1900 1500 | mm Hg 134/52 158/128 190/94 160/100 220/64 | mm Hg 144/58 152/116 188/90 154/98 220/64 171/85 | 88 60 100 80 100 | 100 86 110 88 100 | 28 40 20 20 28 28 | 44 44 33 33 33 33 |

* P—prone S—sitting

S—sitting † Note the marked difference in the cisternal pressure as well as the vital capacity in the two positions in each patient This difference in the cisternal pressure in the two positions is much greater than in the control group The venous pressure, the lumbar spinal fluid pressure, and the cisternal pressure in each position were found to be much greater in the patients with cardiac disease than in the normal individuals. The venous and the lumbar spinal fluid pressures in the patients with cardiac disease were also considerably higher in the sitting than in the prone position. As in the first group the cisternal pressure was much less in the upright than in the recumbent position. Although the difference in the cisternal pressure in the two positions in the normal individuals was considerable, in the patients with cardiac disease this difference was much greater and averaged 256 mm water. The arterial blood pressure, and pulse and respiration rates as in the first group showed no marked consistent changes between the two positions, although the pulse rade was usually slightly greater in the sitting position. In every case the vital capacity was higher in the sitting than in the prone position and the percentile increase in the vital capacity was greater in this group than in the patients without cardiac disease.

COMMENT

Observations on the cisternal pressure of the normal individual in the sitting position have been rare. Ayer (6) reported the cisternal pressure in the upright position to be below zero. Weed (7) demon strated the difference in cisternal pressure in animals in the two positions, and Weed and Hughson (8) have shown the close relationship that exists between the cerebrospinal fluid pressure and cerebral venous pressure. It has been shown by Harrison, Cullen, Calhoun, Wilkins and Pilcher (9) that a decrease in vital capacity tends to cause a reflex increase in breathing. That an increase in venous pressure causes a reflex stimulation of respiration has been demonstrated by Harrison, Harrison, Calhoun, and Marsh (10)

Since the vital capacity is less in the prone than in the sitting position in patients with congestive heart failure, this decrease in vital capacity is no doubt one important cause of orthopnea. Furthermore, patients have been observed with slight orthopnea who have a diminution in vital capacity but no significant elevation in venous pressure or in cerebrospinal fluid pressure.

On the other hand, a number of observations point to the conclusion that there is another very important factor not connected with the vital capacity concerned in the production of orthopnea (1) In the first place, Ernstene and Blumgart observed no parallelism between the percentile reduction of vital capacity and the degree of orthopnea, but did observe a striking parallelism between the height of venous pressure and the degree of orthopnea (2) Ernstene and Blumgart found that when patients with orthopnea were placed in the recumbent position, simple elevation of the head by flexing it on the thorax produced a

conspicuous diminution of respiratory distress, although this procedure had no significant effect on the vital capacity of the lungs (3) Harrison found that, after spinal drainage was performed on individuals with orthopnea, many of these patients were able to breathe more comfortably in the prone position, although the vital capacity showed no significant change after this procedure. It has now been shown that the cisternal pressure is markedly decreased when a patient goes from the prone to the sitting position. It seems probable that this decrease in cisternal pressure along with its accompanying change in cerebral venous pressure explains the three sets of observations just mentioned. Anything that tends to decrease disternal pressure in a patient with cardiac disease will give additional comfort in breathing. One method of reducing this pressure is to sit the patient up. Another method is to employ spinal drainage. Obviously, venesection is very useful, since it not only decreases venous and spinal fluid pressures, but also increases vital capacity.

As a result of these observations it is believed that, in addition to the increase in vital capacity, the diminished cisternal pressure is an important factor in producing the relief from dyspnea obtained in the sitting position. The mechanism of this effect is as yet unknown

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A study was made of the cisternal pressure, the lumbar spinal fluid pressure, the systemic venous pressure, the vital capacity, the arterial blood pressure, and the pulse and respiration rates in the recumbent and upright positions in five patients without cardiac disease and in five patients with congestive heart failure

- 1 The arterial blood pressure and pulse rate were usually slightly greater in the sitting than in the prone position, but in general the blood pressure, and the pulse and respiration rates showed no marked consistent changes with position in either group
- 2 The systemic venous and lumbar spinal fluid pressures were greater in the sitting than in the prone position in each subject, and were much greater in each position in the patients with congestive heart failure than in the patients without cardiac disease
- 3 The vital capacity was greater in the sitting than in the prone position in both groups of cases and the percentile increase of vital capacity with change in position was greater in the patients with cardiac disease
- 4 The cisternal pressure was much greater in each position in the group with congestive heart failure than in the other group
- 5 The cisternal pressure was much less in the upright than in the recumbent posture in each case and this difference in cisternal pressure between the two positions was much greater in patients with congestive heart failure than in those without cardiac disease

As a result of these observations it is believed that, in addition to the increase in vital capacity, the diminished cisternal pressure is an important factor in producing the relief from dyspnea obtained in the sitting position. The mechanism of this effect is as yet unknown

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THE ACTION OF PHLORIZIN ON THE EXCRETION OF GLUCOSE, XYLOSE, SUCROSE, CREATININE AND UREA BY MAN

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(Received for publication July 21, 1933)

Although phlorizin has been used mostly in the lower animals, its administration to man is not without precedent, shortly after its isolation by de Koninck (1836a, b), this investigator tried it in the treatment of malaria on the ground that it was bitter, like other remedies which were effective in this disease. The use of the drug in this connection was short-lived, however, and it was not until many years later that v Mering (1885) discovered that it caused glycuresis and diuresis, observations which initiated its application in the treatment of nephritis, sarcoma, etc., and as a test for renal function in man, in addition to its well known use in studies of metabolism. Since these instances of human administration are of some interest, we have summarized them in Table I

The largest dose per os appears to be 15 grams in wafer form, reported by Pietkiewicz (1869) and v Mering (1889), while Korte (1896) took three five gram doses dissolved in alcohol in one day v Mering (1889) also records the largest parenteral dose (in a case of sarcoma) 2 grams (in warm aqueous solution) injected subcutaneously daily, one gram in the morning and one gram in the evening, for a period of thirty days Benedict and Lewis (1913—personal communication) gave 2 grams daily in 10 cc of sterile olive oil subcutaneously over a period of days. In no instance was permanent injury described

Moderate intravenous doses of the drug produce no unfavorable reactions in the dog, and we decided that the intravenous route would be the most satisfactory for our purposes, particularly since we wished to determine the exact effect of small doses. Our anticipation in this matter has been justified, since we have given phlorizin in doses varying from 2 0 to 65 0 mgm per kgm with no unfavorable reactions other than an apparent diminution in glomerular activity with the larger doses. We feel called upon, however, to express a word of caution about the use of the intravenous technique in man and refer the reader to the description of our method of preparation and administration. Previous observations from this laboratory have shown that in the dog adequate doses of phlorizin raise the glucose clearance and lower the creatinine clearance to the level of the vylose clearance (Jolliffe, Shannon and Smith

| TABLE I | |
|--------------------------------|-------|
| Administration of phlorizin to | o man |

| Investigator | Date | Mgm per man per diem | Route of administration |
|--------------------------|------|----------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| de Koninck | 1836 | 1,600 | Per os, divided doses |
| v Coetsem | 1836 | (' 1 | Per os, one dose |
| Mareska | 1836 | , | Per os, 2 doses |
| de Muynck | 1836 | _,-,- | Per os.? |
| Hanegraeff | 1836 | , , , | Per os, one dose |
| Pietkiewicz | | 15,000 | Per os, one dose |
| v Mering | | 15,000 | Per os, one dose |
| Klemperer | , | 10,000 | Per os, one dose |
| Korte | , | 15,000 | Per os, 3 doses |
| 110110 | 10/0 | 10,000 | 201 001 0 00000 |
| v Mering | 1889 | 2,000 | Hypodermic, 2 doses, for 30 days |
| Magnus-Levy | 1896 | , , , , | Hypodermic, ? |
| Achard and Delamare | 1899 | , , , | Hypodermic, one dose |
| Delamare | 1899 | 50 | Hypodermic, one dose |
| Casper and Richter | 1900 | | Hypodermic, one dose |
| Allard | 1907 | 200 | Hypodermic, one dose |
| Tanaka | 1908 | 10 | Hypodermic, one dose |
| Benedict and Lewis | 1913 | 2,000 | Hypodermic, one dose, repeatedly* |
| Chabanier and Lobo-Onell | 1913 | | Hypodermic, one dose |
| Grote | 1921 | 10 | Hypodermic, one dose |
| Kamnitzer and Joseph | 1921 | 2 5 | Hypodermic, one dose |
| Hetényi | 1922 | 60 | Hypodermic, one dose |
| Rosenberg | 1923 | 50 | Intramuscular, one dose |
| Kamnitzer and Joseph | 1924 | 2 | Intramuscular, one dose |
| Dunner and Mecklenburg | 1925 | 4.4 | Hypodermic, one dose |
| Dunner and Kronenberger | 1930 | 10 | Intramuscular, one dose |
| Present experiments | 1933 | 3,800 | Intravenous, one dose |

^{*} In oil (personal communication)

(1932) and Shannon, Jolliffe and Smith (1932)) Our present experiments were designed to determine if similar changes in the glucose and creatinine clearances occur in man Large doses of the drug were avoided, and different individuals were employed for each test

METHODS

Our subjects were convalescent patients, with normal renal function, kept in bed throughout the morning of the experiment. The routine of the experiments listed in Table II was as follows

The patient was allowed no breakfast At zero minutes 70 grams of xylose were given in 10 tablespoons of oatmeal (no milk or sugar) and shortly afterward 10 grams of creatinine were taken in water (NB). The administration of xylose in oatmeal circumvents the diarrhea which frequently follows its administration in aqueous solution and generally gives a flat blood sugar curve). Varying amounts of water were given at zero, 30 and 60 minutes, and at 90 minutes the bladder was emptied (vide infra) and the first urine collection period begun. After one or more control periods phlorizin was injected

intravenously During the next few minutes (washout period) normal saline was instilled into the bladder and removed with the discard. Three more specimens of urine were then collected at intervals of 20 to 30 minutes each

In the experiments listed in Table III the above routine was modified to permit the intravenous injection of sucrose. At zero minutes 500 cc. of water were taken followed by 70 grams of xylose in 10 tablespoons of oatmeal, at 50 minutes an intravenous infusion of 10 per cent sterile sucrose solution (in distilled water) was begun, 600 cc. being injected over a period of 30 to 50 minutes. Immediately after this injection, phiorizin was administered intravenously

Urine was collected by catheterization in dry flasks containing a little benzoic acid with special care to secure complete emptying of the bladder Samples of blood were taken from the antecubital vein as near to the middle of each urine collection period as possible. The blood was centrifuged and the plasma precipitated at once. All plasma concentrations were interpolated to the exact middle of the urine collection period and no correction was made for

urinary dead space

Phiorizin, repurified by the method of Deuel and Chambers (1925) was weighed out in advance of the experiment. Just before use the phiorizin was dissolved in hot, freshly boiled 2.5 per cent NaHCO2, and while still warm the solution was injected into the antecubital vein. In those experiments where the dose of phiorizin was greater than 2.5 grams, it was necessary to weigh the drug in two portions and to dissolve them separately (Otherwise the solution cools and the drug recrystallizes during the injection)

The chemical methods used were those of Jolliffe Shannon and Smith (1932) and Shannon, Jolliffe and Smith (1932) Sugar and creatinine analyses were done twice in all experiments except those on TS, MW, and MM the deviation between the two analyses was slight, and the recorded figures

are in every case averages of the two determinations

Our experiments are divisible into two groups, in the first of which (Table II) the effects of single doses of phlorizin on the urea, glucose, xylose, and creatinine clearances were followed. Two control samples of blood and urine were collected prior to the injection of phlorizin, after a washout period of 20 to 50 minutes to clear the dead space of the kidneys, ureters and bladder, three more samples of urine and additional samples of blood were collected to enable us to observe the effects of phlorizin over a period of 40 to 60 minutes

The second group of experiments was designed to examine the effects of increasing doses of phlorizin on the glucose, xylose and sucrose clear ances (Table III) The arrangement of these experiments was similar to those of the first group except for the omission of control periods

In the first group of experiments 11.8 mgm of phlorizin per kgm raised the glucose clearance for at least one hour to the level of the vilose clearance, and 65.2 mgm per kgm did not raise the former significantly above the latter. In accordance with the observations previously published from this laboratory, we interpret these results to indicate that the last four individuals in Table II were "completely phlorizinized," i.e., the tubular reabsorption of glucose was completely blocked.

TABLE II

Simultaneous xylose, glucose, urea and creatinine clearances in man following intravenous administration of phlorizin

| Subject | Phlo | Sur- face | Total | Urine flow | | <u>u</u> 1 | IV P/S A | | Creatinine | Urea | Glucose |
|---------|-----------------|--------------|------------|---------------|--------------|---------------|-----------------|-----------|--------------|------------|--------------|
| | rızın | area | time | per minute | Xy- lose | Glu- cose | Crea- tinine | Urea | Xylose | Xylose | Xylose |
| | mgm per kılo | sq m | minutes | cc | | | | | | | |
| ΤS | 2 04 | 1 51 | 35 | 1 30 | 20 4 | { | 35 9 | 14 6 | 1 76 | 72 | |
| ď | 1 | 1 | 54 | 95 | 179 | | 310 | 116 | 1 73 | 65 | (|
| | } | } | 79 | | 14 1 | | 260 | 98 | 1 84 | 69 | } |
| | | | 105 | | out p | | | 1 | | | |
| | ł | } | 141 | 2 17 | | 13 0 | | 150 | 1 47 | 66 | 58 |
| | | | 183 | 1 10 | 15 9 | 4 2 | 23 0 | 96 | 1 45 | 60 | 26 |
| M W | 4 12 | 1 18 | 21 | 1 00 | 53 0 | | 104 3 | 38 4 | 1 97 | 72 | Ì |
| ę | 1 | | 37 | 1 50 | 64 7 | | 128 5 | 49 1 | 1 99 | 76 | ſ |
| |]] | | 80 | | out p | | | 1 | | | <u>.</u> . |
| | 1 | | 99 | 4 60 | | 35 2 | | 46 1 | 1 96 | 84 | 64 |
| | 1 | | 117 138 | 5 55 5 76 | | 36 6 30 8 | | 48 2 | 1 92 2 07 | 82 | 62 52 |
| | _ | | 130 | 3 70 | 59 1 | 30 0 | 122 4 | 4/ 1 | 201 | 80 | 32 |
| M M | 6 07 | 1 52 | 31 | 3 20 | 18 4 | | 43 2 | 14 5 | 2 35 | 79 | |
| Ş | | | 63 | 3 20 | 34 3 | | 78 5 | 26 5 | 2 29 | 77 | |
| | [] | | 90 | Wash | | | | 1 1 | | | |
| | | | 121 | 2 60 | | 31 0 | 65 1 | 26 8 | 2 11 | 87 | 1 01 |
| | | | 150 179 | 3 60 3 10 | | 34 6 15 3 | 86 4 83 2 | 32 5 | 2 30 2 28 | 86 83 | 92 42 |
| | | | 179 | 3 10 | 30 3 | 15 5 | 83 2 | 30 2 | 2 20 | | |
| ΑH | 118 | 1 27 | 18 | 12 70 | 58 0 | l | 106 7 | 44 0 | 1 84 | 76 | |
| ₽ |)) | | 74 | Wash | | | | 1 1 | | | |
| | 1 1 | | 94 | 3 20 | | 50 3 | 86 2 | 38 8 | 1 76 | 79 | 1 02 |
| | } } | | 114 | 3 10 | 52 2 | 55 2 | 93 6 | 40 3 | 1 79 | 77 | 1 06 |
| | | | 139 | 2 90 | 55 4 | 57 6 | 94 0 | 40 8 | 1 70 | 74 | 1 04 |
| M S | 15 7 | 1 39 | 25 | 1 60 | 53 5 | { | 96 3 | 41 7 | 1 80 | 78 | |
| Ş | } | | 72 | Wash | | | | } } | | _ | 4.00 |
| | } | } | 90 | 1 67 | 43 9 | | 75 5 | 31 0 | 1 72 | 71 | 1 03 1 04 |
| | 1 | | 104 130 | 1 63 | 42 3 48 6 | | 73 0 81 2 | 30 7 34 3 | 1 73 1 67 | 73 71 | 99 |
| | | | 130 | | 40 0 | 40 3 | | 343 | | | |
| CS | 20 4 | 1 47 | 21 | 7 30 | 58 6 | ł | 109 5 | 34 3 | 1 87 | 58 | |
| ð | | (| 41 | 2 60 | 60 8 | į | 112 3 | 35 4 | 1 85 | 58 | |
| | } } | } | 74 | Wash | out p | eriod | | | | | 4.02 |
| | 1 | - } | 94 | 2 37 | 52 4 | | 105 5 | 30 6 | 2 01 | 58 | 1 03 1 01 |
| | } } | 1 | 115 | 2 25 | 55 4 | 56 0 | 108 5 | 33 1 | 1 96 | 60 60 | 98 |
| | | | 139 | 2 26 | 58 0 | 30 B | 110 9 | 34 9 | 1 91 | | |
| NO | 65 2 | 1 60 | 20 | 9 70 | 43 0 | - } | 76 3 | 33 1 | 1 77 | 77 | |
| Ŷ | | } | 44 | 6 62 | 41 4 | 1 | 82 5 | 34 3 | 1 99 | 83 | |
| | | ĺ | 91 | Wash | | | | | | ا م | 1 00 |
| |] | ļ | 106 | 2 08 | 30 8 | 33 4 | 46 3 | 20 0 | 1 50 | 65 | 1 08 1 04 |
| | | ł | 126 145 | 2 10 1 94 | 32 9 30 2 | | 49 9 48 6 | 20 7 | 1 52 1 61 | 63 64 | 1 04 |
| | { | Ì | 142 | 1 74 | 30 2 | J2 U | 40 U | */ = | | | |
| | · | | | | | | | | | | |

TABLE III

Simultaneous xylose sucrose and glucose clearances in man following intravenous administration of phlorizin

| Subject | Phlorizia | Surface area | Total con current | Urine flow per | · ! | UV P/S.A. | | Glucose Vylose | Sucrose |
|---------|----------------|-----------------|----------------------|-------------------|--------|--------------|---------|-------------------|---------|
| | | щел | time | minute | Xylose | Glucose | Sucrose | | |
| | mgm per kgm | sq m | minutes | cc | | | | | |
| ΑV | 217 | 1 58 | 18 | 6 64 | 57 1 | 45 8 | 560 | 0 80 | 0 98 |
| Ŷ | | } | 39 | 5 38 | 586 | 480 | 54 4 | 0.82 | 0 93 |
| • | 1 | 1 | 60 | 4 41 | 50 6 | 43 2 | 48.5 | 0.85 | 0.96 |
| | 1 | ļ | 80 | 4 20 | 49 3 | 36 1 | 47 4 | 0 73 | 0 96 |
| FΜ | 29 7 | 1 32 | 19 | 4 30 | 557 | 509 | 538 | 0 91 | 0 97 |
| Q | { | { | 39 | 3 95 | 554 | 55 4 | 53 6 | 1 00 | 97 |
| , | ţ | (| 64 | 3 48 | 53 3 | 54 1 | 54 3 | 1 02 | 1 02 |
| VT | 419 | 1 59 | 31 | 4 90 | 468 | 410 | 45 0 | 0.88 | 0 96 |
| Q | 1 | İ | 51 | 3 80 | 37 8 | 34 7 | 35 6 | 92 | 94 |
| | Ì | Ì | 75 | 5 79 | 484 | 45 5 | 484 | 94 | 1 00 |
| W M | 453 | 1 49 | 20 | 4 02 | 420 | 398 | 42 0 | 0 95 | 1 00 |
| ♂ | 1 | } | 43 | 3 97 | 470 | 45 9 | 461 | 0 98 | 98 |
| | } | } | 66 | 4 09 | 495 | 481 | 500 | 0 97 | 101 |
| | \ | 1 | 87 | 3 77 | 478 | 48 1 | 47 4 | 1 01 | 99 |
| F M | 59 4 | 1 32 | 29 | 4 30 | 55 1 | 560 | 58 6 | 1 02 | 1 06 |
| ₽ | 1 | { | 54 | 3 56 | 57 2 | 57 7 | 61 4 | 1 01 | 1 07 |
| | } | 1 | 82 | 2 86 | 46 2 | 44 8 | 48 5 | 97 | 1 05 |
| | | | 104 | 2 18 | 44 3 | 44 0 | 457 | 99 | 1 03 |

In the experiments listed in Table III, in which the comparison of vylose and sucrose was made, 21 7 mgm per kgm were apparently inadequate to produce complete glycuresis, but the variations in the glucose vylose ratio after larger doses must be considered to be within the experimental error. Again we pushed on to large doses to see if any one of the three sugars might be preferentially affected, but we find no evidence that such is the case. If avlose or sucrose were reabsorbed by the renal tubules, it might be imagined that a small dose of phlorizin would bring the glucose clearance up to the vylose clearance, while larger doses would raise the former definitely above the latter. To the contrary, it would seem that once the reabsorption of glucose is completely blocked, the simultaneous glucose, xylose and sucrose clearances remain identical within the experimental error, regardless of the quantity of phlorizin administered. In view of this fact, and in view of the further facts that the xylose clearance is not raised significantly in respect to the urea clearance, nor in respect to its own control level.1 by the

 $^{^{1}\,\}mbox{The single exception to this statement occurred in T S , who received the smallest dose of phlorizin given$

administration of phlorizin, we conclude that in man, as in the dog, the xylose (or sucrose) clearance is a measure of glomerular filtration (cf Jolliffe, Shannon and Smith, 1932)

Since, by the above interpretation, "complete phlorizination" consists of a change in renal activity whereby all the glucose filtered at the glomeruli is allowed to pass into the urine, and since the term "complete phlorizination" is open to several objections, we prefer to designate this condition as "complete glycuresis," in line with the use of this term as suggested by Benedict, Osterberg and Neuwirth (1918) to designate the increased rate of excretion of glucose, rather than the mere presence of this substance, in the urine. Thus, we are able to speak of complete glycuresis, transient glycuresis and recovery from glycuresis, a more flexible usage than is possible with the older term

The fact that the urea clearance is consistently lower than the xylose clearance is uninterpretable at the present time. The urea - xylose ratios observed throughout this work confirm in general the observation of Jolliffe and Chasis (1933) and Keith, Power and Peterson (urea - sucrose, 1933) on man, and our own observations on the dog

With regard to the effect of phlorizin on the creatinine clearance in man it will be noted that the administration of the drug resulted in a drop in the creatinine xylose ratio only in subjects TS and NO Since equally large variations in this ratio have been observed during the course of single experiments in man (unpublished details of Jolliffe and Chasis, 1933), we cannot attach particular significance to this result, and we conclude that larger doses of phlorizin are required to reduce the creatinine clearance to the level of the xylose clearance (i.e. to depress completely the tubular secretion of creatinine) than are required to produce complete glycuresis. It would be of interest to know if complete depression of creatinine secretion could be obtained in man as in the dog, but we decided that the question did not justify the administration of intravenous doses larger than those we have given

In conclusion, it may be noted that the glycuresis induced in man by phlorizin is transient, as is the case in the dog. All our subjects were tested for glycosuria at intervals following the formal observations, and found to be essentially sugar-free within 24 hours

SUMMARY

The minimum intravenous dose of phlorizin required in man to produce complete phlorizination (i.e., to raise the glucose clearance to xylose clearance) was found to be in the neighborhood of 10 to 20 mgm per kgm

Sixty-five mgm per kgm did not raise the glucose clearance above the xylose clearance, and 594 mgm per kgm did not cause deviation between the xylose and sucrose clearances Neither did the phlorizin

cause a significant rise in the xylose clearance as compared to control periods taken just before the administration of the drug

In the largest dose which we have given (650 mgm per kgm) the drug exerted no significant depressive action on the ratio of creatinine

xvlose clearance

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AMINO NITROGEN CHANGES OF THE BLOOD IN NEPHRITIS

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(Received for publication July 25 1933)

Amino nitrogen and peptide nitrogen content of the blood in nephritic patients have been frequently determined since the introduction of suitable micro methods. Gasometric determinations of amino nitrogen and peptide nitrogen of plasma and red blood cells separately have, however, not yet been done.

That colorimetric analyses of the same blood samples give lower results for amino acid nitrogen than the gasometric method or the formaldehyde titration, and that colorimetric recovery of amino acids added to blood is incomplete, have been reported by Van Slyke and The use of different analytical methods may accordingly Kirk (18) explain the conflicting results reported in the literature observers using the colorimetric method of Folin (Berglund (2), Greene, Sandiford and Ross (6), Schmidt (16), Witts (20), Feinblatt and Shapiro (5)) found no deviation from the normal in series of patients with nephritis, including several cases of uremia. Slightly or moderately increased values of amino nitrogen in uremia were reported with the colorimetric method by Wowsi and Gelbird (21), and by Looney (11) in an individual case of mercuric chloride poisoning shortly before death Extensive studies have been made in recent years in Volhard's clinic by Becher and Herrmann (1) with a modification of Folin's colorimetric technique, increase of free amino nitrogen of whole blood was frequently observed in patients with severe impairment of the kidney function Only in a single case, however, did the method used indicate values exceeding 10 milligrams per cent

Most of the work done with the gasometric method is of earlier date Using various protein precipitants Bock (3), Okada and Hayashi (14), and Desqueyroux (4), all found increased amino nitrogen of the blood in cases of advanced nephritis. In nephritic toxemias of pregnancy, on the other hand, Losee and Van Slyke (12), and Morse (13) observed no marked deviation from the normal

Quantitative determination of peptide nitrogen of blood was first made with exact methods by Hiller and Van Slyke in 1922 (7) by gasometric determination of blood filtrates before and after hydrolysis with hydrochloric acid. A similar procedure of acid hydrolysis has been used by different authors in studies of the peptide nitrogen in nephritis,

but in most cases other methods were substituted for the gasometric to determine the amino nitrogen before and after hydrolysis. When comparing results both the method of amino nitrogen determination and the protein precipitant used should be considered. Hulse and Strauss (9), using the formaldehyde titration method of Sørensen, and Hulse and Franke (8), using the gasometric method, observed high values for peptide nitrogen in nephritic patients with hypertension. Jackson, Sherwood and Moore (10), Becher and Herrmann (1), and Schlossmann (15), using the colorimetric method, were, however, unable to find any relation between the blood pressure and the content of peptide nitrogen in the blood in nephritis. A definite increase in peptide nitrogen was frequently seen by Becher and Herrmann (1) in cases of severe renal insufficiency, the peptide nitrogen even occasionally exceeding the concentration of free amino nitrogen, increase of peptide nitrogen with normal amino nitrogen values was sometimes observed

METHODS

For separate analyses of cells and plasma, oxalated blood was centrifuged till constant volume of the red blood cells was obtained, plasma was then syphoned off and the intermediate layer of plasma and cells discarded Samples of red blood cells were measured with a calibrated pipette "to contain"

Urea was transformed into ammonia by addition of a urease solution and phosphate buffer as described by Van Slyke (17) The proteins of plasma or whole blood were then precipitated by the Folin-Wu method To plasma or whole blood one volume of 10 per cent sodium tungstate and one volume of 2/3 N sulfuric acid were added, and the mixture was diluted with water to 10 times the original volume of the sample For precipitation of the proteins of the red blood corpuscles two volumes of 10 per cent sodium tungstate and two volumes of 2/3 N sulfuric acid were used for each volume of cells, but the sample was finally, as in precipitation of plasma and whole blood, made up to 10 times its original volume with water Five cc of filtrate, therefore, represented 0.5 cc of plasma, red blood corpuscles or whole blood Usually, however, the filtrate from the red blood corpuscles was again diluted with two volumes of distilled water to obtain sufficient material for analysis Because of the high amino nitrogen content of the red blood cells the dilution did not diminish the amino nitrogen readings enough to interfere with accuracy

The ammonia of the filtrates, formed by the splitting of the urea with urease, was removed by boiling with milk of magnesia and amino nitrogen afterwards determined by the manometric method of Van Slyke (17)

For determination of peptide nitrogen the urea-and-ammonia-free filtrates were heated on a water bath for 24 hours with equal volumes of concentrated hydrochloric acid. After evaporation of the acid in an open dish each residue was neutralized with a few drops of a saturated solution of sodium acetate and finally made up to volume (7). It was found unnecessary to subject the hydrolyzed samples again to boiling with milk of magnesia before the amino acid determination, as identical results were obtained with and without such treatment.

For blank analyses a urease solution was prepared, and precipitated, and

the filtrate was diluted as described by Van Slyke (17 p 442), or Peters and Van Slyke (22) The amino introgen content of the filtrate was determined before and after hydrolysis, to obtain the c correction Separate blanks were determined for analyses of plasma and red blood corpuscles

The normal magnitude and constancy of results obtained with the above procedure is illustrated by Table I — It gives the results from two samples of the same blood which were centrifuged and analysed separately — The sample of plasma filtrate represented 0.5 cc of plasma, the sample of filtrate of red blood cells 0.167 cc of corpuscles

TABLE I
Showing reproducibility of measurements

| | Milligrams per cer | it amino nitrogen |
|---------------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| | 1 | II |
| Plasma unhydrolyzed | 4 10 | 4 07 |
| Plasma hydrolyzed | 4 10 | 4 03 |
| R B C unhydrolyzed | 12 85 | 12 91 |
| R B C , hydrolyzed | 18 89 | 18 03 |

Studies of amino nitrogen and peptide nitrogen of the blood were made in seven uremic patients (See Tables II and III)

TABLE II

Amino nitragen in whole blood during development of uremic coma

Case No 1, M J Hospital No 7855

| Date | Amino | nitrog 100 cc. | en per | Whole blood nonprotein | Whole blood urea nitrogen | Urea clearance | Condition |
|--------------|--------|-------------------|----------------|---------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|-----------|
| Date | Plasma | Cells | Whole blood | nitrogen per 100 cc. | per 100 cc. | Orea Gearance | Condition |
| 1951 | migm | mam | mem | mem | mem. | per cent of mean normal | |
| September 27 | 1 | | 180 | 148 | 118 | | Uremia |
| September 28 | ì | 1 ' | 13 7 | 150 | 119 |) 6) | Uremia |
| October 13 | l l | (' | i | (| į | ((| |
| 10 00 A M] | 1 | J | 123 | 171 | 191 | | Uremia |
| 9 30 P M 🐧 | | ı | 21 4 | 189 | 141 | | Coma |
| October 29 | 28 8 | 36 7 |] |] | 1 | } | Coma |

CLINICAL NOTES ON UREMIC CASES 1

Case No 1 Hospital No 7855 M J, female, 33 years As a child had

Coma Patient unconscious and does not respond

¹ The nomenclature followed here for the different types and stages of Bright's disease is in general that used by Van Slyke Stillman et al (19) In addition, to distinguish the different conditions near and in coma, the following terms are used

Terminal stage with nitrogen relention Nitrogen retention without clinical symptoms

Uremia Nitrogen retention with clinical symptoms, such as nausea and vomiting but with normal consciousness

Semi-comatose condition Consciousness greatly influenced, but patient still responds

TABLE III Uremic cases 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6

| | Subject | c¢. | Am | Amino nitrogen per 100 cc | en per 10 | ၁၁ ၀(| | | |
|------------------|----------|---------------------------|--------------|---------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| Initials and Hos | Hospital | i. | Pla | Plasma | ن | Cells | Blood urea nitrogen per 100 cc | Urea clearance | Condition |
| ' | mber | Date | Free | Peptide | Free | Peptide | | | |
| | | 1023 | mgm | твт | твт | mgm | твт | per cent of mean normal | |
| EH No 2 81 | 8166 | | 23 4 37 3 | -10 70 | 12 2 24 8 | 16 5 18 0 | | 7 | Uremia Coma |
| J D No 3 80 | 8080 | 1932 June 29 July 7 | 16 8 12 3 | 10 | 12 4 18 4 | 63 | | | Uremia Uremia |
| EB No 4 78 | 7884 | 1931 November 5 | 59 | 19 | 13.5 | 12.0 | | 61 | Good |
| | | December 21 | 6 5 9 | 0.4 | 13 1 | 2.9 | | 06 | |
| | | May 26 June 1 | 65 | | 14 1 12 4 | | | | |
| | | | 213 | -51 | 12.9 | 9.5 | 140 | ∞ | Coma Died 48 hours later |

TABLE III (continued)

| | Condition | | | Coma Intravenous glucose | Still comatose but condition | Condition improved | Condition improved | Condition good | Ascites developing | Fever (till December 24) | Condition good | Condition good | Condition good | Condition good | Condition good | Condition good | | Coma | Сота |
|--|---------------------------------------|---------------|----------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|----------------|--------------------|--------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| | Urea clearance | | per cent of mean normal | | 9. | | | | | 7.2 | | | | | 84 | 7.1 | 34 | | |
| | Blood urea nitrogen per 100 cc. | | шВш | 163 | 143 | | | 151 | 152 | 157 | | 127 | 126 | 118 | 91 | 95 | | 239 | 295 |
| | Cells | Peptide | шЕш | 10 56 | 9 85 | 8 26 | 8 25 | 7 00 | 808 | 7 28 | 7 32 | | 1 | 13 54 | 9 36 | 9 27 | | 9 38 | 2 81 |
| th per 10 | ŭ | Free | шЕш | 19 24 | 16 25 | | 12 90 | | | | | | 12 21 | | | 15 51 | | 7 10 | |
| Amino nutrogen per 100 cc. Plasma Cells Peptide Free Pep | | Peptide | твт | -2 29 | -199 | 92 | 1 33 | 1 66 | 12 | 1 27 | 1 20 | | 10.01 | 33 | 1,2 | - 71 | | 2 42 | -1 58 |
| Am | Pla | Free | mgm. | 21 80 | 22 40 | 10 24 | 7 18 | 5 82 | 21 12 | 7 29 | 10 20 | 8 19 | 2 | 200 | 11.52 | 14 22 | | 28 58 | 28 20 |
| t | í | Date | | 1931 December 6 | December 10 | December 15 | December 16 | December 17 | December 21 | December 22 | December 26 | December 29 | 1932 | January 1 | January 5 | May 1 | September 21 | September 26 | September 27 |
| Subject | Hosnital | number | | 6473 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Trafficial | serial number | | M W No 5 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

TABLE III (continued)

| | Condition | | | Good | Good Uremia | Semicomatose Sample taken | Semicomatose Sample taken | Semicomatose | Semicomatose Moment of death | |
|---------------------------|------------------------|---------------|----------------------------|------------------------|-------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|--------------|---------------------------------|--------------|
| | Urea clearance | | per cent of mean normal | 26 22 | 7 | | | | | |
| _ | Blood urea nitrogen | | тдт | 20 33 | 82 182 | | | | | |
| 20 00 | Cells | Peptide | твт | 9 28 5 05 | | | | | | |
| en per 10 | Ď. | Free | твт | 12 24 13 80 | | | | | | |
| Amino nitrogen per 100 cc | Plasma | Peptide | mgm | - 18 -162 | | | | | | |
| Am | Pla | Free | mgm | 5 57 11 63 | 6 43 9 06 | 13 76 | 10 87 | 14 72 | 10 20 15 46 | |
| it. | 4 | Date | 1031 | November 24 December 3 | May 21 June 13 | 9 30 A M | 9 30 P M | 11 00 P M | 645 A M 1145 A M | See Figure 1 |
| Subject | Hospital | number | | 7872 | | | | | | 8392 |
| • | Initials and | serial number | | MR No 6 | | | | | | MC No 7 |

hemorrhagic Bright's disease following tonsillitis. After several years of active symptoms the patient went into a latent stage, but the renal lesion became active again during a pregnancy, necessitating abortion. In the following period of ten years exhibited hypertension and proteinuria. Two weeks before admission vomiting, edema of feet and dyspinea developed. On admission (September 25, 1931) was in uremia.

Case No 2 Hospital No 8166 E H, female, 21 years Two years before admission had hematuria and hypertension Visual disturbances, edema of ankles, vomiting and diarrhea had been present in the last weeks

On admission (May 28, 1932) was in uremia

Case No 3 Hospital No 8080 J D, male, 30 years Ten months before admission developed tonsillitis proteinuria and hypertension, followed by edema and ascites In the last days had had severe nose bleedings On admission (June 28, 1932) was in uremia

Case No 4 Hospital No 7884 E B, male 29 years Nine years before admission had had respiratory infection with hematuria Recovered into a latent stage with proteinuria as only symptom. In the last six months had had hypertension and severe headache. The patient was observed for several months during the chronic active stage and during the last weeks of terminal internia.

Case No 5 Hospital No 6473 M W, male, 15 years Three and a half years before admission developed generalized edema with proteinuria and reduced kidney function following an attack of upper respiratory infection. In the following period gave evidence of activity in the kidney lesion (micro scopic hematuria) Immediately before admission (December 3, 1931) suffered from abnormal sleepiness and attacks of convulsions

Case No 6 Hospital No 7872 M R, female, 19 years Four months before first admission had edema of the legs On admission (October 21, 1931) macroscopic hematuria hypertension and reduced kidney function were present. In the following 18 months the nephritis progressed through the chronic active to the terminal stage. Two weeks before last admission (May 4, 1933) reduction of vision and occasional cardiac decompensation were noted Death occurred on June 15 1933, after two days of a semicomatose condition

Case No 7 Hospital No 8342 M C male 19 years Four years before admission developed proteinuria (and hematuria?) following mastoiditis Went into a latent stage of hemorrhagic Bright's disease Three weeks before admission had had inflammation of the mandibular region caused by hemolytic streptococci. In relation to this infection there occurred acute exacerbation of the nephritis with oliguria, gross nitrogen retention and vomiting. On admission (November 25, 1932) was in acute uremia, markedly dehydrated During the first days in the hospital was at intervals extremely drowsy, but not comatose.

Following treatment of the dehydration the patient made a quick recovery to an excellent general condition. The activity of the renal lesion persisted however, and the kidney function never exceeded 10 per cent of the average normal urea clearance.

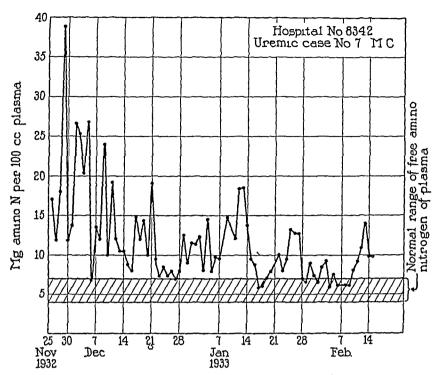
Amino nitrogen determinations of plasma were made daily for a period of about three months. The data are presented in Figure 1. The highest value, 38.7 mgm of amino nitrogen per 100 cc. of plasma, was observed on November 29, 1932, at a time when the patient was very drows.

Amino nitrogen and peptide nitrogen content of blood of normal individuals and non-aremic nephritic patients

| ì | Liagnosis | | Normal | Normal | Normal | | | Normal | Normal | Normal | | Hemorrhagic Bright's | disease initial | | Same | Same | | Hemorrhagic Bright's | disease active | Come | Sanie | Same Same | Homorrham Bucht's | disease latent | |
|-----------------------------------|----------------|-------------------------|--------------------|----------------|-------------------|------------------|----------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|----------------------|-----------------|-------------------|-------------------|------------------|------------------|----------------------|-----------------|------------------|------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| - | Urea clearance | der cent of mean normal | | | | | | | | | | 78 | ç | 8 8 | 109 | 22 | | 92 | | ‡ 8 | 3 9 | 8 8 | 88 | } | 161 |
| Amino nitrogen in red blood cells | Peptide | mgm per 100 cc | | 637 | 5 01 | 7 27 | 9 32 | 5 12 | 4 85 | 3 95 | | 7 01 | , | 4 12 | 0000 | 5 05 | | 6 82 | 6 53 | 11 97 | | 2 89 | 9.57 | . 1 | 5 64 |
| Amino nitrogen | Free | mgm per 100 cc | | 11 09 | 18 07 | 13 14 | 20 51 | 4 66 2 | 10 15 | 8 26 | | 12 44 | 7 7 7 | 10.21 | 12.21 | 13 80 | | 10 98 | 8.33 | 13 46 | 15 20 | 13 09 | 8 89 | ,,, | 13 60 |
| Amino nitrogen in plasma | Peptide | mgm per 100 cc | - 54 | 55 | 41 | - 16 | 17 | 90 1 | 30 | 19 | | 23 | 27 | 12. | | -162 | 1 | ្ត រ | _ 32 | 1 86 | - 22 | 44 | 19 | ¥ | cr _ |
| Amino nitrog | Free | mgm per 100 cc | ĸ | 9 | ις · | 4 | ις, | | 4- | 4 14 | | 5 46 | 5 03 | 5 12 | 5.57 | 11 63 | 1 45 | C# # | 4 90 | 587 | 6 92 | 6 48 | 6 49 | 80 | 200 |
| Pate | 2000 | | September 27, 1932 | August 7, 1932 | December 10, 1931 | January 21, 1932 | April 15, 1932 | September 28, 1932 | September 28, 1932 | September 29, 1932 | | January 4, 1932 | April 7, 1932 | November 25, 1931 | November 24, 1931 | December 3, 1931 | November 10 1021 | troveniber 19, 1931 | January 6, 1932 | November 5, 1931 | November 6, 1931 | December 21, 1931 | December 17, 1931 | November 19, 1931 | 1007 (07 1000000) |
| Subject | | · | | | | | | | J. M. | | Hospital Number | 7943 | 7986 | 7828 | 7872 | Same | 7450 | 2 | 7842 | 7884 | Same | Same | 7938 | 7874 | |

TABLE IV (continued)

| 16 1211 1607 101 1288 143 1394 | 5 58 | November 13 1931 November 30 1931 January 25 1932 December 29 1931 Aprel 8 1932 |
|---|------|---|
| | 1 57 | mber 9 1932 7.78 mber 10 1931 6 88 mber 24 1931 8 904 |



Uremia→←Terminal stage of hemorrhagic Bright's disease → with nitrogen retention

Fig 1 Amino Nitrogen Content of Blood Plasma During and After Recovery from Acute Uremia

SUMMARY OF RESULTS

In cases of chronic and acute nephritis with more than 40 per cent of normal urea clearance the plasma amino nitrogen content, determined gasometrically, was found normal, 4 to 6 5 mgm per 100 cc

In more advanced cases, but without uremic symptoms, the plasma amino nitrogen was sometimes normal and sometimes increased to 8 to 10 mgm per 100 cc

In the pre-coma stage, the plasma amino nitrogen was variable, and might change in 24 hours from practically normal to over 20 mgm per 100 cc

In uremic coma, the plasma amino nitrogen was found uniformly high, from 2 to 7-fold normal

The amino nitrogen fluctuations in the plasma were more marked than in the cells, and more regularly related to the condition of the patients Significant variations in the plasma peptide nitrogen were not observed

CONCLUSIONS

Elevation of plasma amino nitrogen tends to be more frequent as renal disease becomes more advanced The correlation between fall in

renal function and rise in plasma amino nitrogen is irregular, however, in some cases the renal clearance approaches the coma level (about 5 per cent of normal clearance) before rise in plasma amino nitrogen occurs It appears probable, therefore, that the rise in amino acid content is not directly due to renal failure, but to a breakdown in the mechanism for metabolism of the amino acids occurring elsewhere as part of the general debacle

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A FORMULA AND NOMOGRAM FOR THE ESTIMATION OF THE OSMOTIC PRESSURE OF COLLOIDS FROM THE ALBUMIN AND TOTAL PROTEIN CONCENTRATIONS OF HUMAN BLOOD SERA

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(Received for publication July 31, 1933)

In connection with investigations to be reported subsequently the osmotic pressure of colloids and the albumin and total protein concentrations of 128 samples of human blood serum were determined. From these data, which cover a wide range of values, an empirical formula has been evolved which, it is believed, will enable the osmotic pressure to be more accurately estimated from the protein analyses of human sera than is the case with formulae now employed for this purpose (1, 2) A nomogram has been constructed to facilitate such computations. The simple, definitely linear relation found to exist between the albumin concentration and the specific osmotic pressure would indicate that the albumin globulin ratio is not as reliable an index of the osmotic properties of serum as is at present often assumed

It may justly be contended—at least on theoretical grounds—that the accuracy of most of the colloid osmotic pressure measurements previously carried out on human blood sera is open to serious question, either for the reason that the authors have failed to recognize the fundamental criteria of equilibrium upon which any good physical chemist would insist (3) or because of the failure to describe the methods employed in sufficient detail to enable one to judge as to whether such criteria have actually been fulfilled

In a recent communication (4) it was emphasized that, for the accurate determination of the osmotic pressure of colloids, it is essential to observe certain rigid criteria of an osmotic equilibrium. Procedures were described by which these criteria of accuracy might be fulfilled, and a detailed description of the apparatus and methods has recently been published (5). By a strict adherence to such standards it has been possible, during the present investigation, to obtain from duplicate determinations on each serum pressure values which, in 95 per cent of the cases, do not differ by more than 12 mm of water. No pressure reading has been considered to be accurate unless it has been possible to maintain the volume of the serum at a constant value, at this pressure

and at constant temperature, for a period of at least two hours—a period of observation sufficient, according to our tests, to insure the attainment of a definite equilibrium when the membranes are of the standard selected permeability. Consequently, it is believed that our figures actually refer to equilibrium pressures. The fact that the standard per cent deviation of the calculated from the observed values of the osmotic pressure is only ± 5 per cent leads us to believe, furthermore, that for routine clinical purposes, the method of calculation, which avoids the many difficulties inherent in the usual methods of direct determination, will provide a sufficiently reliable index of the water-retaining power of the serum. Such a conclusion is, however, to be considered as subject to the same qualifications as apply to all cases of indirect measurements, as for example, the estimation of the basal metabolic rate from the oxygen consumption. The possibilities of error in the use of the calculated figures will be discussed in later paragraphs

METHODS

Protein analyses were carried out in duplicate by the macro-Kjeldahl method on samples drawn under oil without stasis. Globulin was separated by precipitation at 38° C with 22 5 per cent sodium sulphate according to the method of Howe (6). Nonprotein nitrogen was estimated by the micro-Kjeldahl-Nesslerization method, on oxalated plasma. The usual factor, 6 25, was used to convert protein nitrogen values to protein concentrations.

The osmotic pressure determinations were carried out in a constant temperature room at 20° to 22° C. Duplicate determinations were done in all but four instances. The collodion membranes used were standardized to a specific permeability (4) range of 20×10^{-8} to 40×10^{-8} Equilibrium was usually attained in 1 to 3 hours, but a somewhat longer time was occasionally required. The details of the method and the criteria of osmotic equilibrium have been described elsewhere (4, 5). Occasional lapses of the vigilant attention to detail which is necessary for success in carrying out such determinations invariably led to gross errors which necessitated discarding the results. On the other hand, all data have been included for which definite evidence of gross errors of technic was lacking, regardless of the degree of variation between the duplicate determinations

DATA

The blood samples were taken from 53 individuals, from 1 to 10 determinations being carried out on each person, often over periods of several months. Of these 53 persons 14 were laboratory workers, students, and other volunteers, all apparently in good health, 20 presented, at one time or another, and to various degrees, evidences of nutritional edema, 12 had heart disease, and 1 each suffered from the following

pathological conditions multiple vanthomatosis, chronic diarrhea, aplas tic anemia, pellagra with chronic colitis, Banti's disease, nephrosis,

syphilitic cirrhosis of the liver

The data are presented in Table I, arranged in order of increasing albumin concentrations The 10 lowest albumin, total protein and osmotic pressure figures were obtained from a single individual, over a period of 5 months during the gradual decline associated with an advanced nephrosis The 13 highest values were obtained from blood which had been concentrated by causing the subjects to stand in the erect posture for one hour or longer, in connection with experiments which are to be described elsewhere The extreme range of the values encountered may be indicated by the following figures albumin, per cent. 0.89 to 6.62, globulin, 1.66 to 6.48, total protein, 2.99 to 9.64, albumin globular ratio, 0.42 to 2.80, osmotic pressure of colloids, 76 to 583 mm water, and specific osmotic pressure, 25 4 to 59 2 mm water figures for the albumin concentrations probably furnish the best index as to the distribution of the values There were 10 albumin values below 25, 13 between 25 and 35, 50 between 351 and 45, 48 between 451 and 5.5, and 7 above 5.5

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The specific osmotic pressure, S, was calculated for each case by dividing the value of the total osmotic pressure, P, measured in mm of water, by the concentration of total proteins, C. measured in grams per 100 cc Values for the specific pressures were plotted on a threedimensional graph against the corresponding values of the albumin and of the globulin concentrations This was done by driving wires, sharpened at one end, into the drawing board on which the axes of albumin and globulin concentrations (A and G) were laid off on cross section paper Each value of S was thus represented by the height of a wire and the point through which the wire was driven represented the corresponding A and G values The surface produced by the tips of the wires was seen to be fairly regular, but contrary to our earlier expectations it did not show any obvious relation between the specific osmotic pressure and the globulin concentration or A/G ratio The formula of Govaerts (1) implies the assumption that the specific pressure is determined primarily by the A/G ratio According to his concept the value of S will fall with increasing values of G for sera having a constant value of A Govaerts also assumes that the total protein concentration, C, is without effect on the value of S in the case of sera which have the same A/G ratio In our series there is an obvious and regular relation between C and S and it was apparent from inspection of the wire model, that the increasing values of S, as C increased, were due entirely to the increase in A The relation between the specific pressure and the albumin was

TABLE I

Data arranged in ascending order of albumin concentrations

| Case number | Albumin | Specific pressure observed | Specific pressure calcu- lated | Total protein | Osmotic pressure observed | Osmotic pressure calcu- lated | Varia- tion of calcu- lated from observed pressure | Maxi- mum ex- perimen- tal error | Unex- plained vari- ations |
|----------------|------------------------|----------------------------------|---|------------------------|---------------------------------|--|--|---|-------------------------------------|
| | grams per 100 cc | mm H ₂ O | mm H ₂ O | grams per 100 cc | mm H ₂ O | mm H ₂ O | mm H ₂ O | mm H ₂ O | mm H ₂ O |
| 37 | 0 89 | 25 4 | 26 7 | 2 99 | 76 | 80 | + 4 | ±21 | ĺ |
| 37 | 1 25 | 30 9 | 28 8 | 3 10 | 96 | 89 | - 7 | ±22 | { |
| 37 | 1 46 | 29 3 | 300 | 3 35 | 98 | 101 | + 3 | ±22 | |
| 37 | 1 75 | 30 1 | 31 7 | 3 56 | 107 | 113 | + 6 | ±23 | |
| 37 | 1 93 | 31 2 | 32 8 | 3 59 | 112 | 118 | + 6 | ±23 | |
| 37 | 1 93 | 30 4 | 32 8 | 3 71 | 113 | 122 | + 9 | 土23 | |
| 37 | 1 94 | 31.3 | 328 | 3 89 | 122 | 128 | +6 | ±23 | |
| 37 | 2 28 | 38 6 | 34 9 | 4 09 | 158 | 143 | -15 | 土24 | |
| 37 | 2 41 | 34 6 | 35 6 | 4 16 | 144 | 148 | + 4 | ±24 | |
| 37 35 | 2 44 | 32 2 | 35 8 | 4 28 | 138 | 153 | +15 | ±24 | |
| 35 26 | 2 57 2 67 | 34 1 | 36 6 37 2 | 4 36 5 92 | 149 234 | 159 | +10 | ±25 | |
| 20 20 | 2 80 | 39 5 43 6 | 37 9 | 5 92 | 254 258 | 220 224 | $-14 \\ -34$ | ±27 ±27 | - 7 |
| 36 | 2 87 | 41 5 | 38 3 | 9 35 | 388 | 358 | -34 | 土31 | - 1 |
| 49 | 3 11 | 40 9 | 39 7 | 4 88 | 199 | 194 | - 5 | ±31 ±26 | |
| 47 | 3 19 | 39 7 | 40 2 | 5 74 | 228 | 231 | + 3 | 土27 | |
| 47 | 3 19 | 410 | 40 2 | 5 68 | 233 | 228 | _ 5 | 土27 | |
| 47 | 3 20 | 390 | 40 3 | 5 84 | 228 | 235 | +7 | ±27 | |
| 49 | 3 30 | 43 4 | 40 9 | 4 98 | 216 | 204 | -12 | ±26 | |
| 49 | 3 30 | 39 6 | 40 9 | 5 10 | 202 | 208 | + 6 | ±26 | |
| 47 | 3 34 | 408 | 411 | 5 64 | 230 | 232 | + 2 { | ±27 | |
| 49 | 3 46 | 398 | 418 | 5 18 | 206 | 217 | +11 | ±27 | |
| 32 | 3 49 | 427 | 420 | 7 61 | 325 | 320 | - 5 | ±30 | |
| 49 | 3 52 | 476 | 42 2 | 5 15 | 245 | 217 | 28 | 土27 | - 1 |
| 31 | 3 60 | 43 4 | 42 6 | 6 38 | 277 | 272 | - 5 | 土28 | |
| 49 | 3 61 | 45 7 | 42 7 | 6 10 | 279 | 260 | -19 | 土28 | |
| 31 | 3 62 | 43 7 | 428 | 6 58 | 288 | 281 | - 7 | ±28 | +16 |
| 47 | 3 67 3 67 | 36 3 37 5 | 43 1 | 6 71 6 33 | 244 | 289 273 | +45 +36 | ±29 ±28 | + 8 |
| 31 23 | 3 70 | 413 | 43 2 | 6 27 | 259 | 271 | +12 | 土28 | -1 0 |
| 49 | 3 70 | 42 1 | 43 2 | 5 25 | 221 | 227 | +6 | 土27 | |
| 38 | 3 73 | 44 6 | 43 4 | 7 15 | 319 | 310 | - 9 | 土29 | |
| 32 | 3 73 | 463 | 43 4 | 8 09 | 375 | 351 | -24 | ±31 | |
| 32 | 3 80 | 426 | 43 8 | 7 44 | 317 | 326 | +9 | ±30 | |
| 52 | 3 82 | 430 | 439 | 6 45 | 277 | 283 | + 6 | ±29 | |
| 23 | 3 83 | 464 | 44 0 | 6 66 | 309 | 293 | -16 | ±29 | |
| 33 | 3 94 | 43 3 | 44 6 | 6 50 | 281 | 290 | + 9 | ±29 | |
| 42 | 3 98 | 45 9 | 44 9 | 6 99 | 321 | 314 | - 7 | ±29 | |
| 48 | 4 01 | 44 9 | 45 1 | 6 82 | 306 | 307 | + 1 | ±29 | |
| 22 | 4 03 | 450 | 45 2 | 671 | 302 | 303 | + 1 | 士29 | |
| 38 | 4 04 | 43 8 | 45 2 | 6 98 | 306 | 316 | +10 | ±30 ±30 | |
| 23 | 4 04 | 45 7 | 45 2 | 7 12 6 49 | 325 309 | 322 294 | $\begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ -15 \end{bmatrix}$ | 土29 | |
| 10 10 | 4 05 4 10 | 47 6 49 1 | 45 3 45 6 | 6 38 | 313 | 291 | -22 | 土29 | |
| 10 | 7 10 | 7/ A | ±3 0 | \ | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | |

TABLE I (continued)

| Case number | Albumin | Specific pressure observed | Specific pressure calcu lated | Total protein | Osmotic pressure observed | Osmotic pressure calcu lated | Varia tion of calcu lated from observed pressure | Maxi mum ex perimen tal error | Unex plained vari ations |
|----------------|-------------------------|----------------------------------|--|------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|--|-----------------------------------|
| | grams per 100 cc. | mm H±O | mm H ₂ O | grams per 100 cc | mm H ₁ O | mm H ₁ O | mm. H10 | mm H ₂ O | mm H ₁ O |
| 7 | 4 11 | 44 2 | 45 6 | 7 95 | 352 | 363 | +11 | ±31 | |
| 12 | 4 13 | 47 1 | 45 8 | 6 33 | 298 | 290 | - 8 | ±29 | |
| 16 | 4 14 | 44 1 | 458 | 7 01 | 309 | 321 | +12 | ±30 | |
| 33 | 4 16 | 44 3 | 45 9 | 677 | 300 | 311 | +11 | ±29 | |
| 23 | 4 19 | 44 2 | 46 1 | 6 92 7 06 | 306 328 | 319 327 | +13 - 1 | ±30 ±30 | |
| 4 | 4 22 | 46 4 | 463 | 7 54 | 371 | 349 | -22 | ±30 | 1 |
| 31 17 | 4 23 | 45 8 | 464 | 7 08 | 324 | 328 | + 4 | ±30 | i |
| 17 | 4 25 | 49 4 | 465 | 6 82 | 337 | 317 | -2ô | ±30 | |
| 17 | 4 27 | 47 7 | 466 | 6 67 | 318 | 311 | - 7 | ±29 | l |
| 28 | 4 27 | 486 | 46 6 | 5 99 | 291 | 279 | -12 | ±29 | j |
| 24 | 4 30 | 491 | 468 | 6 49 | 319 | 304 | 15 | ±29 | \ |
| 3 | 4 33 | 47 2 | 46 9 | 6 65 | 314 | 312 | - 2 | ±29 | 1 |
| 50 | 4.33 | 45 5 | 469 | 8 18 | 372 | 384 | +12 | ±31 | |
| 3 | 4 36 | 487 | 47 1 | 6 47 | 315 | 305 | -10 | ±29 | } |
| 29 6 | 4 37 | 48 0 45 4 | 47 2 47 2 | 7 06 | 339 323 | 333 | - 6 +13 | ±30 ±30 | |
| 25 | 4 39 | 45 0 | 47.3 | 7 25 | 326 | 343 | +17 | ±30 | (|
| 4 | 4 39 | 480 | 47 3 | 7 11 | 341 | 336 | - 5 | ±30 | İ |
| 17 | 4 40 | 477 | 47 4 | 6 64 | 316 | 314 | - 2 | ±30 | j |
| 9 | 4 41 | 473 | 47 4 | 7 06 | 334 | 335 | + 1 | ±30 | 1 |
| 16 | 4 42 | 464 | 47 5 | 6 70 | 311 | 318 | 1 7 | ±30 |) |
| 8 | 4 42 | 47 2 | 47 5 | 6 80 | 321 | 323 | + 2 | ±30 | l |
| 2 | 4 43 | 428 | 47.5 | 6 48 | 277 | 308 | +31 | ±29 | + 2 |
| 30 | 4 44 | 470 | 47 6 | 7 10 | 334 | 338 | + 4 | ±29 | |
| 15 | 4 46 | 498 | 477 | 6 26 | 312 335 | 299 | -13 | 土29 | |
| 44 43 | 4 48 | 51 2 | 47 8 | 6 64 | 340 | 330 318 | - 5 -22 | ±30 ±30 | |
| 9 | 4 49 | 489 | 479 | 699 | 342 | 335 | - 7 | ±30 | l |
| 29 | 4 50 | 45 7 | 48 0 | 7 10 | 325 | 340 | +15 | ±30 | } |
| 8 | 4.50 | 510 | 480 | 7 12 | 363 | 341 | -22 | ±30 | |
| 24 | 4 52 | 463 | 48 1 | 678 | 314 | 326 | +12 | ±30 | ł |
| 29 | 4 52 | 44 9 | 48 1 | 7 07 | 317 | 340 | +23 | ±30 | l |
| 5 | 4 52 | 498 | 48 1 | 6.33 | 315 | 304 | -11 | ±29 | 1 |
| 17 3 | 4 53 | 47 2 | 48 1 48 2 | 6 63 | 351 320 | 358 | + 7 | ±31 |] |
| 51 | 4 55 | 528 | 48 2 | 6 35 | 335 | 319 306 | - 1 -29 | ±30 | 1 |
| 21 | 4 57 | 49 2 | 48 4 | 6 69 | 329 | 324 | - 5 | ±29 ±30 | 1 |
| 8 | 4 59 | 468 | 485 | 672 | 314 | 326 | +12 | ±30 | ĺ |
| 30 | 4 59 | 49 6 | 48 5 | 6 86 | 340 | 333 | 1 7 | ±30 | l |
| 30 | 4 60 | 488 | 48.5 | 7 27 | 355 | 353 | - 2 | ±31 | 1 |
| 30 | 4 62 | 44 8 | 48 7 | 7 12 | 319 | 346 | +27 | ±30 | } |
| 39 | 4 62 | 48 6 | 48 7 | 6 85 | 333 | 333 | 0 | ±30 | 1 |
| 8 15 | 4 62 | 48 2 51 2 | 48 7 | 6 91 | 333 | 336 | + 3 | ±30 | |
| 41 | 4 64 | 51 5 | 488 | 6 87 | 354 | 318 335 | -16 -19 | ±30 ±30 | |
| | 1 | | 1 - 5 | 1 ,,, | 1 307 | 1 333 | 1 | =30 | 1 |

TABLE I (continued)

| | | | | <u>, </u> | | , | | | |
|----------------|------------------------|----------------------------------|---|---|---------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|---|-------------------------------------|
| Case number | Albumin | Specific pressure observed | Specific pressure calcu- lated | Total protein | Osmotic pressure observed | Osmotic pressure calcu lated | Varia- tion of calcu- lated from observed pressure | Maxi- mum ex perimen tal error | Unex- plained vari- ations |
| | grams per 100 cc | mm H₂O | mm H₂O | grams per 100 cc | mm H ₂ O | mm H ₂ O | mm H ₂ O | mm H ₂ O | mm H ₂ O |
| 6 | 4 68 | 476 | 49 0 | 6 74 | 321 | 330 | +9 | ±30 | |
| 24 | 4 68 | 516 | 490 | 7 02 | 362 | 344 | -18 | ±30 | |
| 18 | 4 69 | 50 5 | 49 1 | 7 92 | 400 | 389 | -11 | ±31 | |
| 24 | 4 72 | 489 | 49 2 | 7 12 | 348 | 351 | + 3 | ±31 | |
| 34 | 4 72 | 50 5 | 49 2 | 6 87 | 347 | 338 | - 9 | ±30 | |
| 46 | 4 77 | 50 3 | 49 5 | 7 51 | 378 | 372 | - 6 | ±31 | |
| 11 | 4 77 | 500 | 49 5 | 7 13 | 357 | 353 | - 4 | ±31 | |
| 24 | 4 78 | 53 3 | 49 6 | 6 64 | 354 | 329 | —25 | ±30 | |
| 13 | 4 78 | 50 4 | 49 6 | 6 91 | 348 | 343 | - 5 | ±30 | |
| 19 | 4 78 | 49 1 | 49 6 | 7 03 | 345 | 349 | + 4 | ±31 | |
| 53 | 4 79 | 519 | 49 7 | 7 14 | 371 | 355 | -16 | ±31 | |
| 27 | 4 81 | 51 4 | 498 | 7 02 | 361 | 349 | -12 | ±31 | |
| 12 | 4 84 | 51 4 | 50 0 | 7 50 | 385 | 375 | -10 | ±31 | |
| 15 | 4 90 | 49 3 | 50 3 | 6 78 | 334 | 341 | + 7 | ±30 | |
| 14 | 4 91 | 48 5 | 50 4 | 7 58 | 368 | 382 | +14 | ±31 | |
| 24 | 4 91 | 49 2 | 50 4 | 6 95 | 342 | 350 | + 8 | ±31 | |
| 24 | 4 92 | 49 1 | 50 4 | 7 07 | 348 | 357 | + 9 | ±31 | 10 |
| 8 | 4 92 5 01 | 55 7 | 50 4 | 7 95 6 86 | 443 351 | 401 | -42 | ±32 | -10 |
| 45 | 5 02 | 51 2 49 0 | 510 | 7 70 | 377 | 350 | - 1 | ±31 ±32 | |
| 12 40 | 5 02 | 516 | 51 0 51 1 | 7 03 | 363 | 393 359 | +16 - 4 | ±32 ±31 | |
| 1 | 5 06 | 52 3 | 51 3 | 6 86 | 359 | 352 | - 4 | 土31 | |
| 21 | 5 16 | 53 0 | 518 | 7 55 | 400 | 391 | - 9 | ±32 | |
| 29 | 5 18 | 53 6 | 52 0 | 8 26 | 443 | 429 | -14 | ±32 | |
| 4 | 5 22 | 49 8 | 52 2 | 7 72 | 384 | 403 | +19 | ±32 | |
| 34 | 5 32 | 540 | 52 8 | 7 96 | 430 | 420 | -10 | ±32 | |
| 19 | 5 36 | 57 9 | 53 0 | 7 72 | 447 | 409 | -38 | ±32 | |
| 13 | 5 44 | 52 2 | 53 5 | 8 07 | 421 | 432 | +11 | ±33 | |
| 3 | 5 45 | 55 2 | 53 6 | 7 92 | 437 | 424 | -13 | ±32 | |
| 53 | 5 48 | 54 2 | 53 7 | 7 82 | 424 | 420 | - 4 | ±32 | |
| 17 | 5 49 | 54 6 | 53 8 | 8 54 | 467 | 459 | - 8 | ±33 | |
| 24 | 5 55 | 52 1 | 54 1 | 8 11 | 423 | 439 | +16 | ±33 | |
| 19 | 5 60 | 54 8 | 54 4 | 8 30 | 455 | 452 | - 3 | ±33 | |
| 21 | 5 93 | 56 2 | 564 | 8 66 | 487 | 488 | +1 | ±34 | |
| 13 | 5 94 | 496 | 564 | 8 70 | 432 | 491 | +59 | ±34 | +25 |
| 53 | 6 08 | 574 | 573 | 9 05 | 519 | 518 | - 1 | ±34 | |
| 15 | 6 14 | 569 | 57 6 | 8 68 | 494 | 500 | + 6 | ±34 | |
| 34 | 6 62 | 59 2 | 60 5 | 9 64 | 571 | 583 | +12 | ±36 | |
| | <u> </u> | <u> </u> | <u> </u> | | <u> </u> | 1 | | 1 | |

seen to be quite definitely linear, this fact being indicated clearly by the general appearance of the surface produced by the tips of the wires, which lay, in general, in a plane which was parallel to the G-axis and inclined to the A-axis. These characteristics of the relationships are brought out in Figure 1, which shows the total lack of correlation between S and G and in Figure 2, which shows the high degree of correlation

TABLE II

Tabulation of errors of calculation and experimental errors

| | Albumin | Total protein | Specific osmotic pressure | Total osmotic pressure |
|--|---------------------|-------------------------------------|--|---|
| Variations of calculated from observed values Absolute variations Standard error Average variation Maximum variations Per cent variations Standard deviation Average per cent variation Maximum per cent variations | | | mm H ₂ 0 ± 2 23 ± 1 74 + 68 - 5 7 per cens ± 5 05 ± 3 87 + 18 7 - 13 1 | mm H ₂ O ±11 56 +59 0 -42 0 per cent ± 5 05 ± 3 89 +18 4 -13 2 |
| Experimental errors Differences in values of diplicate determinations Average difference Maximum differences | grams per 100 cc | grams per 100 cc 0 09 0 66 | | mm H ₁ O 5 1 19 0 |

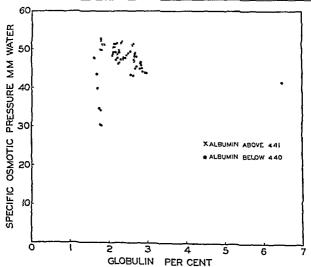


Fig 1 Showing complete lack of correlation between specific osmotic pressure and globulin concentration. Higher values of S correspond to high values of A, only and lower values of S correspond to lower values of Λ , only regardless of values of G

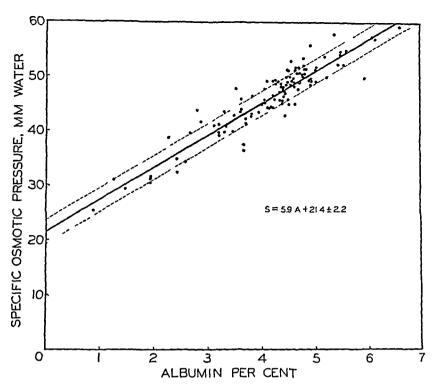


Fig. 2 Showing the linear relation of specific osmotic pressure to albumin concentration, as a straight line, fitted by the method of least squares Correlation coefficient of S and A is 0.93 Standard error of calculation, indicated by dotted lines, is \pm 2.2 mm

between S and A The Pearson coefficient of correlation between S and A was found to be 0.93, which indicates a high degree of relationship The heavy line drawn through the points on between the variables the S-A graph is a straight line fitted to the data by the method of least The equation of this line, S = 5.9A + 21.4 is corrected by means of the dotted lines on either side for the "standard error" of the calculated as compared to the observed values The standard error being ± 22 mm of water, it may be prophesied on grounds of probability that, in any other similar series of measurements, the observed values of S will, in 68 per cent of the cases, fall within the range of values calculated from the formula $S = 5.9A + 21.4 \pm 2.2$ Similarly, if the correction be doubled (twice the standard error being ± 44) the range will include 95 per cent of observed values, while if the correction be trebled 99 7 per cent of cases should be included Actually, in our series the percentage of cases included by the corrections corresponding respectively to the standard error, to twice the standard error, and to three times the standard error, are 72 6, 93, and 98 5 The frequency distribution of the errors is therefore quite according to the "normal distribution" The average

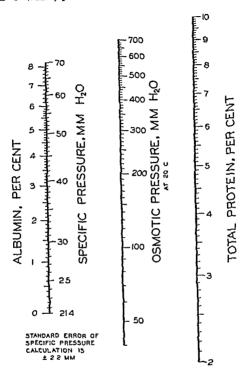


Fig 3 Nomogram A straight line drawn through the proper points on the albumin and total protein scales will intersect the middle scale at the value of the total osmotic pressure calculated from the formula P = C(214 + 59A)

error of calculation of S was ± 1.74 mm and the maximum errors encountered were + 6.8 and - 5.7 mm

The complete independence of the specific osmotic pressure from any effect of varying concentrations of globulin is exemplified by the findings on a sample of serum from the patient (Case Number 36) who suffered from Banti's disease The albumin concentration was 2.87 per cent and the globulin concentration was 6.48 per cent, giving an A/G ratio of 0.44. The observed specific osmotic pressure was 41.5 mm of water, while the value of S calculated from the albumin concentration is 38.3. On the assumption that the globulin fraction of serum exerts, universally, a lower osmotic pressure, gram for gram, than the albumin fraction, one

should expect the value of S of a serum having such an unusually high globulin content to be lower than that calculated by our formula. The fact that it was actually *lngher*, by nearly 8 per cent, indicates clearly the unreliability of the A/G ratio as an index of the specific osmotic pressure, and confirms the idea that it is the albumin concentration which determines the specific osmotic properties of the serum

The total osmotic pressure, P, is calculated from the formula P = C(5.9A + 21.4) The nomogram, reproduced in Figure 3, may be used to facilitate the calculations The absolute error of the calculation of P is equal to the error of S multiplied by the concentration of total protein, C The average error for our series was \pm 116 mm, the maximum errors being + 59 and - 42 mm It is the percentage error of calculation of the total osmotic pressure, however, which will be most significant in practice The percentage error will, in general, be the same for S as for P, and for our series the average per cent error is slightly less than ± 39 , the maximum errors being + 187 and - 132 per cent The standard deviation of the per cent errors about their mean (which is -0.1) is ± 5.05 , which signifies that 68 out of every 100 values of S or P, calculated by the given formulae, will correspond to the observed values within approximately ± 5 per cent, and similarly 99 7 out of every 100 calculated values should check the observed values within \pm 15 per cent Actually, errors lying within the ranges \pm 5 per cent and \pm 15 per cent occurred in 77 and 99 per cent of cases, respectively The per cent errors of calculation may therefore be considered as being "normally" distributed

Sources of error

The term "observed value," as used in the last paragraph, refers, in each case, to the average of the two values obtained from duplicate osmotic pressure determinations. However, in 4 instances, due to a scarcity of serum, only a single determination was run, but in only 1 of these cases was the variation between the observed and calculated values as great as 5 per cent. The greatest variation between the two values obtained from duplicate determinations was 19 mm. The average variation was 5.1 mm, and 95 per cent of the cases showed variations which were not greater than 12 mm. In general there was no relation between the closeness of the check of the duplicate osmotic pressure determinations and the degree of variation of the observed mean pressure from the pressure calculated from the protein analyses.

The question naturally arises as to what extent the variations of the calculated from the observed pressures may be accounted for on the basis of experimental errors and to what extent they must be considered as due to unknown factors. We should like to be able to decide to what extent the osmotic pressure of colloids of serum is due to the protein concentrations as we have measured them and to what extent it is due

to other factors that were not measured during these investigations The average variation of calculated from observed values was \pm 11 5 mm while the average variation of duplicate osmotic pressure determinations was only 5 1 mm, or \pm 2 55 mm when related to the means of the pairs of values Unfortunately the variation of duplicate determinations is not always a measure of the error of a method "Good checks," while reassuring, do not exclude the possibility that systematic errors may have affected both values to the same extent and in the same direction Allowing for the possibility that systematic errors were present of a type which could affect our pairs of observations now in one direction, now in another, at random, we should be fairly safe in assuming, arbitrarily, that the "maximum expected error" will not be greater than ± 12 mm, which is twice the variation from the mean of duplicate determinations in 95 per cent of our cases We can neglect the possibility that systematic errors may operate in one direction for the whole series of cases for they could not be responsible for variations of observed values from values calculated by a formula based on the same series of observations

The error of the chemical analysis of the albumin and total protein concentrations will contribute its share to the total error of the calculated value of the osmotic pressure In 93 per cent of the cases the variations between duplicate determinations of these quantities were not greater than 0.2 gram per 100 cc. Assuming that the maximum expected error is ± 0.2 gram per 100 cc for albumin and also for total protein, the maximum, additive error of both analyses will be responsible for a possible error of from \pm 10 to \pm 20 mm in the calculation of the osmotic By the method of differentials, where the pressure is calculated by the formula P = C(214 + 59A), the total error is the total differential, dP Now, dP = 21 4dC + 5 9A dC + 5 9CdA Since dA and dC, the errors of the analyses, are both considered as ± 0.2 , we have $dP = \pm [1 2(A + C) + 4 3]$ The maximum error of analysis was calculated in this way for each case, and the maximum experimental error found by adding the maximum error of the osmotic pressure determina tion, which is considered to be \pm 12 mm The figures are given in the last column of Table I Even with so great an allowance for errors of measurement, there were 6 instances in which the errors of calculation could not be accounted for It is therefore necessary to assume that other factors, which were not measured, have a determining influence upon the osmotic pressure exerted by a given sample of serum We may conclude that, whereas in a series of cases the errors due to the unknown factor or factors will not seriously affect the reliability of the calculation of the osmotic pressure from the albumin and total protein concentration, in any single instance the calculated value may possibly be in error by an amount which is much greater than the sum of the

experimental errors of the methods employed. The unknown factor does not seem to be referable to individual ("personal") peculiarities of the blood, for in no instance did a large error occur more than once in the series of determinations carried out on blood samples from individual subjects. It may be assumed that the method of calculation will give reliable results when applied to a series of determinations on the same individual as well as when applied to single determinations on a series of several individuals. As a matter of fact, the greatest error so far encountered, 19 per cent, is not so great as to discourage the employment of the method, for most clinical purposes, for single determinations on single individuals. In this respect the method cannot be considered to be less accurate than the usual determination of the basal metabolic rate, for which an error of ± 15 per cent is ordinarily allowed

The significance of the relation between the specific osmotic pressure and the total protein and albumin concentrations. It has been pointed out by Marrack and Hewitt (7) that the "Donnan pressure" due to the excess of diffusible ions in a protein solution over that in the outside solution will be proportional to the square of the protein concentration and must be added to the osmotic pressure of the protein alone in calculating the total osmotic pressure of an ideal protein solution Theoretically, therefore, $P = aC + bC^2$, where a is the constant of proportionality relating the pressure due to the protein alone to the concentration, and where bis a constant relating to the Donnan pressure at constant pH equation, of course, will be expected to hold for a series of blood sera only if they contain the same proportions of the two protein fractions, albumin and globulin that is to say, when A/G remains constant when A/G is constant, C is directly proportional to A, so that our equation for the total osmotic pressure, $P = 21 \ 4C + 5 \ 9AC$, may be written $P = 21 \text{ 4C} + 5 \text{ 9bC}^2$, where b is the constant of proportionality between C and A for a constant value of A/G This is the theoretical form of equation for the Donnan effect Now S = P/C, so that the theoretical formula reduces to S = a + bC For constant values of A/G our equation may be reduced to the identical form, S = 21.4 + 5.9bC

Interesting though these comparisons of our empirical equations with the theoretical Donnan equations may be, however, they do not completely explain the peculiar relations which we have found to exist. It is difficult to understand, on any theoretical basis which is not entirely speculative, why the specific pressure should be so completely independent of the globulin concentration and hence of the A/G ratio. The relation would seem to imply that the specific pressure of globulin in any serum is the same as that of the albumin with which it is associated, and that it has a value which is directly determined by the concentration of the albumin. On the other hand, globulin does not appear to have any effect on the specific pressure of albumin. It should be emphasized that

the term "specific pressure" refers not to the total osmotic pressure, but to the average pressure per gram per cent of total protein. The globulin content of a given serum appears to contribute gram for gram exactly as much to the total pressure as does the albumin. Consequently our data offer no justification for the assumption that albumin (in serum) has an effective molecular weight which is much less than that of globulin. The actual molecular weights of the two substances may, of course, be widely different but if they are, the fact is not reflected in our data and we must assume that other factors enter in to mask the effects of a difference in molecular weight. Whatever the explanation of this peculiar situation may be, the existence of the relation indicates the need for an experimental study of the osmotic properties of both the separate and the mixed solutions of purified serum albumin and serum globulin

The finding that the albumin concentration determines the specific osmotic pressure, not only of the albumin itself but also of the accompanying globulin (regardless of the concentration of the globulin) is of some significance in relation to the clinical correlation of edema with low serum albumin concentrations for it becomes clear that a progressive lowering of the albumin content of a patient's serum entails a simul taneous lowering of the specific osmotic properties of the accompanying globulin fractions, even if the globulin concentration is not lowered

The significance of the A/G ratio as an index of the osmotic properties of serum depends, apparently, on the clinical fact that changes in this ratio are most often due to changes in the albumin fraction—the globulin changing relatively less, in most instances. However, in cases where the globulin undergoes marked variations from the normal value the A/G ratio becomes totally unreliable as an index. In our series as a whole there is a fair degree of correlation between the specific pressure and the A/G ratio, but this must be attributed solely to the particular selection of cases. In individual cases the correlation was often very poor indeed

The fact that the specific pressure increases with increasing total protein concentration (except when this increase is due to an increase in G alone) is in accord with the findings of many other investigators for serum, (8, 9, 10), for serum albumin (11), for other pure protein solutions (12, 13) and for all types of concentrated solutions of crystalloids so far studied, of which the classical example is sucrose (14). Consequently it would appear that the contention of Govaerts that the total protein concentration is without influence on the specific osmotic pressure is without justification except from his own data

The apparent unreliability of the formulae of Govaerts and of von Farkas In general the values obtained by Govaerts for the osmotic pressure of serum tend to be higher than those obtained by others—Further evidence that the values upon which Govaerts' formula is based are unreliable is given by the fact that Verney (8), employing cellophane membranes

furnished by Govaerts, obtained values which were lower in relation to the protein concentrations than those of Govaerts, but of the same order of magnitude as those of most other workers

We have used the formula of Govaerts, $P=75\,4A+19\,5G$, to calculate the osmotic pressures of our sera and find that these calculated values are, on the average, $18\,4$ per cent higher than the values which we observed, with a range of variation of -3 to +59 per cent. Since the formula of Govaerts fits his own data very well, we may conclude from the degree of variability found by the above-mentioned calculations that his observed pressures, mostly higher than ours, are not higher in any definite proportion but in a totally irregular manner. If our determinations are correct, as we believe them to be, it follows that Govaerts' formula cannot be relied upon to give calculated values which are even relatively accurate. The same criticism may be applied to the formula of von Farkas, $P=68A+25\,1G$, for the application of this formula to our data provides values which are, on the average, $13\,4$ per cent higher than the values observed by us, the range of variation being -8 to +56 per cent

SUMMARY

- 1 The osmotic pressure of colloids and the total protein, albumin and globulin concentrations of 128 samples of human serum were determined. The samples were obtained from 53 individuals
- 2 Analysis of the data, which cover a relatively wide range of values, indicates that the relation between the total protein and albumin concentrations and the osmotic pressure is sufficiently regular and definite to allow the use of an empirical formula, derived from the data, for the calculation of the osmotic pressure. The formula is P = C (21 4 + 5 9A), where P is the osmotic pressure in millimeters of water, C is the total protein concentration and A is the albumin concentration, in grams per 100 cc. The standard error of calculation is \pm 5 per cent
 - 3 A nomogram has been constructed to facilitate calculations
- 4 The specific osmotic pressure of serum appears to be a linear function of the albumin concentration. Variations in the globulin concentration over a wide range produce no effect on the specific pressure at constant values of A. Consequently the A/G ratio is a poor index of the osmotic properties of serum. The specific pressure increases for increasing values of the total protein concentration, but only in so far as these increases are not due to increases in the globulin. The theoretical significance of these relations is discussed.
- 5 The formulae of Govaerts and of von Farkas, which have been used to calculate the osmotic pressure, appear to be totally unreliable The reasons for this conclusion are discussed

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HERPETIC PHARYNGITIS AND STOMATITIS A REPORT OF THREE CASES

By PERRIN H LONG

(From the Medical Clinic of the Johns Hopkins Hospital and the Department of Medicine, Johns Hopkins University Baltimore)

(Received for publication July 31, 1933)

In recent years great interest has been manifested in the virus of herpes simplex. It has been stimulated by an increasing curiosity regarding filterable viruses in general, and by the possibility that herpes virus may have a causal relationship to epidemic encephalitis. However, despite the enthusiasm for the study of the properties of this filterable agent, little attention has been paid to the natural manifestations of the disease herpes simplex. This may be due to the ubiquity of herpes simplex or it may be possible that the essential herpetic character of many affections is not recognized.

The recognition of herpes as a clinical entity is probably of great antiquity, the word itself being derived from the Greek <code>ipans</code> meaning literally "a creeping" Aretaeus the Cappadocian, in discussing affections of the tonsils, describes small superficial ulcers to which he gave the name aptha. It is not unlikely that these lesions were herpetic in nature. In 1398, John Trevisia in his fragmentary translation of Bartholomaeus Anglicus' manuscript, "On the Property of Things," makes mention of "this euyll is callyd Herpes" and "suche a scabbe highte Herpes Cingula". This constitutes the first reference to herpes in the English language, and it is plain from this citation that herpes was recognized in the Middle Ages. During the succeeding centuries one finds a constant increase in the number of references to herpetic infections, thereby demonstrating the interest attached to the disease.

However, it was not until the beginning of the nineteenth century that a clear differentiation was established between the clinical course of herpes simplex and herpes zoster. Following this distinction one finds an increased interest taken by clinicians in the delineation of the various simple herpetic affections. The general manifestations of the disease as well as the local, occupied their attention and in the middle of the century, several splendid clinical reports describing the disease are to be found.

Gubler (1) in 1858 gives an admirable account of herpetic infections of the throat which we will quote "A la suite d'un refroidissement, un sujet est pris de malaise, de courbature, puis d'une fièvre quelquefois

assez intense, ainsi que d'un mal de gorge les deux amygdales sont tuméfiées, rouges et ne tardent par à présentes des surfaces circulaires ou irrégulièrement configurées, semblables à des ulcérations superficiells couvertes d'une exsudation plastique grisâtre ou jaunâtre, souvent cette dernière lésion est unilatérale. En même temps il apparaît sur les lèvres une éruption d'herpès ordinairement groupée en grand partie vers l'une des commissures. Tel est aussui le type consacré par le description classique. En bien, dans mon opinion, ces ulcérations tonsillaires doivent être considérées comme de l'herpès labialis sur une surface muqueuse."

Trousseau (2) devoted an entire clinic to the description of herpetic pharyngitis. His description of the individual lesions is classical. "On voit en effet des taches blanche, entourées d'une aréole inflammatoire assez étendue, et dont le volume varie depuis le groisseur d'un grain de millet jus qu' à celui d'un pois. Ces taches laissent à leur place des ulcérations superficielles dont les bords peuvent néanmoins être saillants en raison du gonflement oedémateux des tissus environnants envahis par l'inflammation"

In 1881 James Wilson in his book on "The Continued Fevers" describes simple continued fever as "a fever not due to any specific cause, usually of short duration, lacking the distinguishing characteristics of other fevers, and rarely fatal in temperate climates. The eruption of herpes upon the lips and nose is so common at the close of simple continued fever that this disease by some persons has been called Herpetic Fever"

Two years later Savage (3) reported an epidemic of herpetic fever which occurred in an English boys' school. The clinical picture of the disease in this epidemic was characterized by a slow onset accompanied by headache, lassitude, chilliness, fever, irritability, malaise and vomiting After twenty-four hours, patches of herpetic lesions appeared about the lips or lobes of the ears. In two individuals vesicles appeared on the lower extremities. With the appearance of the vesicles the patients complained of sore throats. Frequently herpetic lesions were present in the throat. By the fourth day the temperature was normal and the patients were convalescent. Thirty-nine boys were affected during a two-week period.

In recent years, despite Trousseau's remark that "Au jour d'hui qu' on est suffisamment averti, il est peu de médecins qui n'aient en l'occasion d'en observer des exemples," very little can be found in medical literature regarding the clinical course of localized and generalized herpetic infections of the simplex type — In 1932 Youmans (4) described an individual ill from herpetic fever with stomatitis — He was successful in isolating the virus of herpes simplex from the mouth lesions in this patient, thus for the first time demonstrating the essential etiological character of the disease

In this report we wish to discuss three cases of herpetic infections in the mouth, two of which were accompanied by fever From two of the individuals the virus of herpes simplex was recovered

CASE HISTORIES

Miss C K J H H 40611, a student aged 23 entered the Medical Clinic on December 9, 1931, complaining of a "sore throat and swollen tender gums' of three days duration. Her past and family history was unimportant Three days before coming to the clinic the patient had spent the week end in New York and while riding to Baltimore on the train, she noticed that her throat was sore. Upon the following day she experienced "chills and fever." The soreness in the throat increased and the gums became tender and swollen Headache appeared and some generalized aching was present. On December 8th the symptoms were more marked and the throat affection was so severe that swallowing became very difficult. She was admitted to the Isolation Ward on the following morning.

Physical examination The patient was undernourished and seemed quite uncomfortable. The temperature was 1016°F, the pulse 112, and the respirations were 20. The skin was warm and moist the ears, eyes and nose were normal. The lips were dry and cracked and just to the right of the midline was a small, crusted, superficial ulcerated lesion. The gums were tender, swollen and spongy and there were numerous small superficial lesions capped with white membranes on the tooth gum margins. These bled freely when slightly traumatized. Near the tip of the tongue were several small vesicles as well as upon the hard palate. The tonsils had been cleanly removed, but the soft palate, uvula pillars and posterior pharyngeal wall were intensely inflamed and moderately swollen. The lymphoid follicles of the posterior.

lymph nodes were enlarged and slightly tender as were also the axillary glands. The remainder of the physical examination was essentially normal

superficial vesicular lesions over the posterior pharyngeal wall

Laboratory data Urine normal Red blood cells 4.4 million Hemo globin 90 per cent White blood cells 4,560 Differential count—Poly morphonuclears 72.5 lymphocytes 12.5, monocytes 15 Wassermann reaction negative Throat cultures (7), staphylococcus aureus Throat smears—no

pharyngeal wall were markedly hypertrophied and there were numerous small

Vincent's organisms Blood culture negative

Impression It was thought on admission to the Ward that the patient was suffering from an acute septic sore throat and an aphthous stomatitis. The possibility of a Vincent's infection was considered, but at no time were

Vincent s organisms demonstrated

Course The temperature remained elevated on the day after admission and the total white blood cells numbered 6 000. The patient complained of a severe sore throat. The mouth lesions were unchanged. On December 11th the temperature was lower and the white blood cells totaled 5 950. The white membranes capping the vesicles were beginning to slough off leaving clean superficial ulcers. On December 12th the temperature fell to normal and there was a marked symptomatic improvement. White blood cells 3 750 Treatment of the ulcers by topical application of 2 per cent gentian violet was instituted. During the next few days the patient improved and by December 18th her mouth and throat were free from ulcerated areas. On December 22nd she was discharged well, and as far as we know she has never had a recurrence of this affection.

Mr M T, J H H 46235, a white, night club saxophone player, aged 25 years, entered the Medical Clinic on November 4th, 1932, complaining of a "sore mouth" of six days duration. His past and family history was unimportant. Five days before coming to the hospital the patient felt "feverish" and thought that his tongue and gums were dry and swollen. A moderately severe headache was present. By evening he developed definite soreness of the throat, tongue and gums. On the following day he felt "grippy" and suffered from generalized aching and malaise. By the next day his throat was so sore and he felt so seedy that he took to his bed. Profuse sweats occurred, his neck became swollen and tender and his headaches more severe. He suffered from insomnia and on the night before entry he was disoriented All of his symptoms increased in intensity and he came to the hospital

Physical examination The patient was well developed and well nourished, but apparently was very uncomfortable The temperature was 100° F, the pulse 96, and the respirations 22 The skin was hot and dry, the ears, eyes and nose were normal The lips were dry, fissured and scaly Several small superficial crusted ulcers were present on the outer dry surface of the lips The inner surface of the lips, the buccal mucous membranes, and the gums Many deflated vesicles capped with dead white skin were dull red in color were seen on these surfaces The gums bled when slightly traumatized The tongue was beefy red and was covered with numerous vesicles similar lesions were seen on the hard palate. The soft palate, uvula, pillars, and posterior pharyngeal wall were moderately inflamed and slightly swollen On the soft palate, uvula and right posterior pillar there were small vesicles surrounded by a small area of intense hyperemia and capped with a dull chalk-white tense membrane These collapsed completely when the vesicular fluid was released. The regional and anterior cervical lymph nodes were enlarged and tender Otherwise the physical examination was normal

Laboratory data Urine normal Red blood cells 4 6 million Hemoglobin 106 White blood cells 6,880 Differential count—polymorphonuclears 62, eosinophiles 1, basophils 1, lymphocytes 34, monocytes 2 Wassermann reaction negative Throat smears—no Vincent's organisms Throat culture—staphylococcus aureus

Impression Because of the presence of typical herpetic lesions upon the lips and the vesicular character of the eruptions in the mouth, it was thought that this patient was suffering from herpetic stomatitis and pharyngitis

Course On the day following the patient's admission to the hospital, his temperature was normal, but there was no change in the condition of the mouth The mouth lesions were treated with topical applications of gentian violet On November 8th the white cells numbered 7,700 The lesions were slowly resolving, but enough discomfort persisted to prevent the taking of solid food By November 11th the lesions had practically disappeared and the patient was discharged There has been no recurrence of the herpes up to the present time

Miss C W, J H H 46136, a student nurse, aged 22, entered the Medical Clinic on January 2nd, 1933, complaining of a "sore throat" of two days duration. With the onset of this affection she suffered from "chills and fever," headache and anorexia. On the following day she felt weak and experienced generalized aching. Profuse sweats occurred during the night. On the day of admission malaise was present and the glands in her neck were enlarged and tender.

Physical evamination The patient was well nourished and seemed com-

fortable The temperature, pulse and respirations were normal A faint, generalized erythema was present. The ears, eyes and nose were normal, as were also the lips gums, buccal mucous membranes and tongue. A discrete vesicular eruption was present over the left anterior pillar and over a right tonsillar tag. The vesicles ranged in size from two to four millimeters and were surrounded by small areas of very hyperemic mucous membrane. The entire throat was mildly erythematous and the lymphoid follicles on the posterior pharyngeal wall were hypertrophied. The regional lymphnodese were moderately enlarged and tender. Otherwise the physical examination was normal.

Laboratory data Urine normal Red blood cells 4.9 million Hemoglobin 100 White blood cells 7,050 Differential count—polymorphonuclears 65, eosinophiles 1 basophils 1, lymphocytes 29, monocytes 4 Wassermann reaction negative Throat culture—staphylococcus albus and aureus

In pression Herpetic pharyngitis

Course The temperature, pulse and respirations remained normal through out the patient's stay in the hospital By January 6th the throat had improved and on the following day the patient was discharged from the hospital No local treatment was used in this instance. There has not been any recurrence of the affection to date

Experimental studies

Miss C K No studies were made because the nature of the throat affection was not suspected until after the vesicles had disappeared

Mr M T Upon November 4th, the cap of a tense vesicle was removed with biting forceps and this material was rubbed into the scarified left corneae of two rabbits. Within twenty four hours a local ized injection of the sclera was observed and after a short time one could see minute vesicles along the lines of scarification with the aid of a hand lens. By November 7th a full blown, steamy keratitis was manifest in both animals. At this point, rabbit Number 1 was killed, the left cornea was removed and then ground in a sterile mortar with a small amount of sterile physiological saline solution. The left scarified corneae of rabbits Numbers 3 and 4 were inoculated with the ground material.

On the 12th of November rabbit Number 2 was hypersensitive and circled definitely to the left. Three days later this animal was extremely hypersensitive, circled to the left, showed marked salivation and retention of urine, ran blindly into objects and had an accelerated respiratory rate. Its temperature was 106.8° F. The rabbit was killed and its brain care fully removed with sterile precautions. A part of the brain was placed in Zenker's acetic fluid, a second portion was cultured in aerobic and anaerobic media, and the remaining bit was ground up in sterile physiological saline solution and the brain suspension was inoculated into the scarified left cornea of a guinea pig. This animal developed a typical keratitis and on the fourth day after inoculation showed characteristic signs of encephalitis. It was then killed and its brain was placed in Zenker's acetic fluid.

Rabbits Numbers 3 and 4 both developed keratitis within twenty-four hours of inoculation and showed definite signs of encephalitis on the seventh day. At that time they were killed and their brains were placed in Zenker's acetic fixing fluid. Histological sections stained with Mallory's eosin-methylene blue stain were made of the fixed tissues Examination of these sections showed in each instance the severe, infiltrative meningoencephalitis and the acidophilic intranuclear inclusions which are characteristic of herpetic encephalitis in laboratory animals

Miss C W On January 4th, the top of a tense vesicle was removed and was rubbed on the scarified cornea of a rabbit. By January 6th a definite keratitis was present and on the following day the animal was killed and the infected cornea removed. Part of this cornea was placed in Zenker's acetic fluid and the remainder was used to inoculate the scarified cornea of a second rabbit. This animal developed keratitis within two days and showed signs of encephalitis on the eighth day, at which time it was killed and its brain placed in Zenker's acetic fluid. Histological sections stained with Mallory's eosin-methylene blue stain were made of the fixed tissues. The cornea of the first rabbit showed a severe infiltrative keratitis with rare intranuclear inclusion bodies. Evidently the process had progressed beyond the stage most favorable for the finding of inclusion bodies. A severe meningoencephalitis was present in the second rabbit and numerous brain cells showed the acidophilic intranuclear inclusion bodies which are considered to be typical of herpetic infection.

The clinical course of herpetic stomatitis and pharyngitis

In all of our cases the onset was slow and the first symptom observed was either a sore mouth or sore throat. Shortly after the onset, headache and malaise accompanied by sensation of "chills and fever" appeared. Sweating was often marked. It was not possible in any of our cases to determine the relation of the appearance of the herpetic lesions to the onset of symptoms. Nausea and vomiting did not occur. As the disease progressed the symptoms became more intense. In all three individuals generalized aching was present at one time or the other. Two patients had a definite fever when admitted to the Ward. These two also had labial herpes and the lesions were widespread in their mouths. None of our cases developed skin lesions. All had white blood cell counts below 8,000 on entry. The differential formulae were normal. Treatment other than palliative seemed to be of little value as the disease is self limited. None of our patients gave a history of susceptibility to herpes and none have had a recurrence of the infection.

We were able to isolate a virus which produced the typical clinical syndromes of herpetic keratitis and encephalitis in rabbits and guinea

pigs from the vesicles in two of three patients — Histological preparations of the corneae and brains from the infected animals showed the acidophilic intranuclear inclusions which are considered to be characteristic of herpetic infections

It is very likely that herpetic affections of the mouth and throat are more common than we suspect. It seems curious that a disease apparently so well known and so frequently recognized in the last century should have become rare. It is probable that if more attention is paid to the clinical appearance of "sore throats," many of them will be recognized as being herpetic in origin.

SUMMARY

Three cases of herpetic pharyngitis and stomatitis have been described and discussed. A virus corresponding to the virus of herpes simplex was isolated from the lesions in two of the three cases

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STUDIES UPON THE NASAL SECRETIONS I THE CELLU-LAR CONTENT OF THE NASAL SECRETIONS IN ACUTE DISEASE OF THE RESPIRATORY TRACT

By PERRIN H LONG, ELEANOR A BLISS AND HARRIET M CARPENTER (From the Laboratory of the John J Abel Fund for Research on the Common Cold and from the Department of Medicine Johns Hopkins University Baltimore)

(Received for publication July 31 1933)

Although common colds are probably the most frequent ailments from which we suffer, very few studies have been made upon the changes that take place in the nasal mucous membranes during acute upper respiratory infections. In 1885 MacKenzie (1) first described the histo logical appearance of the nasal mucous membranes during acute coryza. He found an intense engorgement of the cavernous tissue which was especially well marked over the lower halves of the middle and posterior portions of the inferior turbinates with rupture of the vessels. Along the inner walls of the dilated spaces were congregations of lymphoid cells and in some of them collections of fibrinous exudate. A moderate cellular infiltration was present below the basement membrane.

Forty five years after this report, Hilding (2) published his observations upon the histopathology of the nasal mucous membranes in "colds". He found that "the pathologic process is that of a mucous membrane inflammation showing rather marked tissue changes, including the loss of many of the surface cells and a proliferative reaction in the submucosa. The epithelium is regenerated and repaired by the growth and multiplication of the stellate cells normally found deep in the epithelium."

While studying the nasal secretions, Hilding noted that the cellular content changed rapidly Early in colds the secretion was watery and contained few cells Ciliated epithelial cells appeared during the first twenty four hours and became more numerous by the second day. The deeper epithelial cells, polyblasts and polymorphonuclear cells appeared in the secretions on the second day and rapidly became numerous. Within a few days the polymorphonuclears made up most of the cellular content of the secretions.

Hilding did not believe that the cellular content of the secretions or the pathological picture in the nasal mucous membranes was related to any one causal agent in colds, but interpreted the observed changes as a response to any one of or a combination of etiological factors

D and R Thomson (3) have briefly described nasal secretions from cases of acute watery catarrh Their observations are of interest chiefly

assez intense, ainsi que d'un mal de gorge les deux amygdales sont tuméfiées, rouges et ne tardent par à présentes des surfaces circulaires ou irrégulièrement configurées, semblables à des ulcérations superficiells couvertes d'une exsudation plastique grisâtre ou jaunâtre, souvent cette dernière lésion est unilatérale En même temps il apparaît sur les lèvres une éruption d'herpès ordinairement groupée en grand partie vers l'une des commissures Tel est aussui le type consacré par le description classique Eh bien, dans mon opinion, ces ulcérations tonsillaires doivent être considérées comme de l'herpès labialis sur une surface muqueuse "

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CASE HISTORIES

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Laboratory data Urine normal Red blood cells 4.4 million Hemo globin 90 per cent White blood cells 4,560 Differential count—Poly morphonuclears 72 5 lymphocytes 12 5, monocytes 15 Wassermann reaction negative Throat cultures (7), staphylococcus aureus Throat smears—no

Vincent's organisms Blood culture negative

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Course The temperature remained elevated on the day after admission and the total white blood cells numbered 6 000. The patient complained of a severe sore throat. The mouth lesions were unchanged. On December 11th the temperature was lower and the white blood cells totaled 5,950. The white membranes capping the vesicles were beginning to slough off, leaving clean superficial ulcers. On December 12th the temperature fell to normal and there was a marked symptomatic improvement. White blood cells 3 750. Treatment of the ulcers by topical application of 2 per cent gentian violet was instituted. During the next few days the patient improved and by December 18th her mouth and throat were free from ulcerated areas. On December 22nd she was discharged well, and as far as we know, she has never had a recurrence of this affection.

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On the 12th of November rabbit Number 2 was hypersensitive and circled definitely to the left. Three days later this animal was extremely hypersensitive, circled to the left, showed marked salivation and retention of urine, ran blindly into objects and had an accelerated respiratory rate. Its temperature was 106.8° F. The rabbit was killed and its brain carefully removed with sterile precautions. A part of the brain was placed in Zenker's acetic fluid, a second portion was cultured in aerobic and anaerobic media, and the remaining bit was ground up in sterile physio logical saline solution and the brain suspension was inoculated into the scarified left cornea of a guinea pig. This animal developed a typical keratitis and on the fourth day after inoculation showed characteristic signs of encephalitis. It was then killed and its brain was placed in Zenker's acetic fluid.

Rabbits Numbers 3 and 4 both developed keratitis within twenty-four hours of inoculation and showed definite signs of encephalitis on the seventh day. At that time they were killed and their brains were placed in Zenker's acetic fixing fluid. Histological sections stained with Mallory's eosin-methylene blue stain were made of the fixed tissues Examination of these sections showed in each instance the severe, infiltrative meningoencephalitis and the acidophilic intranuclear inclusions which are characteristic of herpetic encephalitis in laboratory animals

Miss C W On January 4th, the top of a tense vesicle was removed and was rubbed on the scarified cornea of a rabbit. By January 6th a definite keratitis was present and on the following day the animal was killed and the infected cornea removed. Part of this cornea was placed in Zenker's acetic fluid and the remainder was used to inoculate the scarified cornea of a second rabbit. This animal developed keratitis within two days and showed signs of encephalitis on the eighth day, at which time it was killed and its brain placed in Zenker's acetic fluid. Histological sections stained with Mallory's eosin-methylene blue stain were made of the fixed tissues. The cornea of the first rabbit showed a severe infiltrative keratitis with rare intranuclear inclusion bodies. Evidently the process had progressed beyond the stage most favorable for the finding of inclusion bodies. A severe meningoencephalitis was present in the second rabbit and numerous brain cells showed the acidophilic intranuclear inclusion bodies which are considered to be typical of herpetic infection.

The clinical course of herpetic stomatitis and pharyngitis

In all of our cases the onset was slow and the first symptom observed was either a sore mouth or sore throat. Shortly after the onset, headache and malaise accompanied by sensation of "chills and fever" appeared. Sweating was often marked. It was not possible in any of our cases to determine the relation of the appearance of the herpetic lesions to the onset of symptoms. Nausea and vomiting did not occur. As the disease progressed the symptoms became more intense. In all three individuals generalized aching was present at one time or the other. Two patients had a definite fever when admitted to the Ward. These two also had labial herpes and the lesions were widespread in their mouths. None of our cases developed skin lesions. All had white blood cell counts below 8,000 on entry. The differential formulae were normal. Treatment other than palliative seemed to be of little value as the disease is self limited. None of our patients gave a history of susceptibility to herpes and none have had a recurrence of the infection.

We were able to isolate a virus which produced the typical clinical syndromes of herpetic keratitis and encephalitis in rabbits and guinea

pigs from the vesicles in two of three patients Histological preparations of the corneae and brains from the infected animals showed the acidophilic intranuclear inclusions which are considered to be characteristic of herpetic infections

It is very likely that herpetic affections of the mouth and throat are more common than we suspect It seems curious that a disease apparently so well known and so frequently recognized in the last century should have become rare. It is probable that if more attention is paid to the clinical appearance of "sore throats," many of them will be recognized as being herpetic in origin

SUMMARY

Three cases of herpetic pharyngitis and stomatitis have been described and discussed A virus corresponding to the virus of herpes simplex was isolated from the lesions in two of the three cases

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STUDIES UPON THE NASAL SECRETIONS I THE CELLU-LAR CONTENT OF THE NASAL SECRETIONS IN ACUTE DISEASE OF THE RESPIRATORY TRACT

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(Received for publication July 31, 1933)

Although common colds are probably the most frequent ailments from which we suffer, very few studies have been made upon the changes that take place in the nasal mucous membranes during acute upper respiratory infections. In 1885 MacKenzie (1) first described the histological appearance of the nasal mucous membranes during acute coryza. He found an intense engorgement of the cavernous tissue which was especially well marked over the lower halves of the middle and posterior portions of the inferior turbinates with rupture of the vessels. Along the inner walls of the dilated spaces were congregations of lymphoid cells and in some of them collections of fibrinous exudate. A moderate cellular infiltration was present below the basement membrane.

Forty five years after this report, Hilding (2) published his observations upon the histopathology of the nasal mucous membranes in "colds". He found that "the pathologic process is that of a mucous membrane inflammation showing rather marked tissue changes, including the loss of many of the surface cells and a proliferative reaction in the submucosa. The epithelium is regenerated and repaired by the growth and multiplica tion of the stellate cells normally found deep in the epithelium"

While studying the nasal secretions, Hilding noted that the cellular content changed rapidly Early in colds the secretion was watery and contained few cells. Ciliated epithelial cells appeared during the first twenty four hours and became more numerous by the second day. The deeper epithelial cells, polyblasts and polymorphonuclear cells appeared in the secretions on the second day and rapidly became numerous. Within a few days the polymorphonuclears made up most of the cellular content of the secretions.

Hilding did not believe that the cellular content of the secretions or the pathological picture in the nasal mucous membranes was related to any one causal agent in colds, but interpreted the observed changes as a response to any one of or a combination of etiological factors

D and R Thomson (3) have briefly described nasal secretions from cases of acute watery catarrh Their observations are of interest chiefly

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because of their description of certain round bodies which they saw in the cytoplasm of squamous epithelial cells. Attention is called to the resemblances of these bodies to the guarnieri bodies found within the epithelial cells in vaccinia and variola

During the past two years we have been studying the cellular content of the nasal secretions in the course of common colds in an attempt to determine the types of cellular response, the nature of the cells, and if possible, the underlying factors which govern the appearance of the various cellular constituents of the nasal secretions in acute upper respiratory tract disease. This communication describes our observations upon the types of cellular response found in the nasal secretions in disease of the upper respiratory tract.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The subjects utilized in this study were medical students and laboratory workers in the Johns Hopkins University Medical School. A definite attempt was made to obtain the nasal secretions at the beginning and at frequent intervals during the course of the colds. The secretions were gained by having the subject blow his nose upon a clean piece of non-absorbent brown paper and from the nasal discharge preparations were made upon glass slides covered with dried neutral red and Janus green for "supra vital" studies. Permanent preparations were made by evenly smearing the discharge upon clean glass slides and permitting it to dry in the air. The secretions were also observed as to color, consistency and amount

The "supra vital" preparations were examined immediately in a warm box at 37° C and the percentage of the different types of cells was determined. The air dried smears were subsequently stained with thionin blue and were studied for the presence of bacteria and bacterial phagocytosis. Other air dried slide preparations were stained with either Wright's stain or Mallory's eosin-methylene blue stain and were studied for cell types and for the possible presence of intracellular inclusion bodies. No attempt was made to determine the total number of cells in the specimens of nasal secretions.

We have had the opportunity of examining 302 specimens of nasal secretions in the various stages of 98 colds. The majority of the examinations were made in the first week of the infection. We have been unable to obtain what we considered to be normal nasal secretions for control studies, so we have therefore used the nasal discharge from individuals suffering from acute hay fever to control our observations upon the secretions obtained from persons ill with "colds"

EXPERIMENTAL OBSERVATIONS

In the early stages of colds one commonly finds polymorphonuclear leukocytes, macrophages (monocytes and clasmatocytes), squamous and columnar epithelial cells, eosinophilic leukocytes, lymphocytes and red blood corpuscles present in the nasal secretions. The cellular response (in the nasal discharge) during the first forty eight hours of a cold may be of three types. In the first type the majority of the cells are macrophages and epithelial cells, in the second type polymorphonuclear leukocytes, and in the third eosinophilic leukocytes. Striking examples of these three types are not commonly encountered as most of the samples of early nasal secretions showed cellular contents which were gradations between the extremes. The three types of response together with the average are shown in Charts 1, 2, 3 and 4

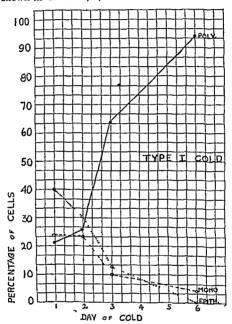


CHART I A COMMON COLD SHOWING A PRIMARY MACROPHAGE EPITHELIAL
CELL RESPONSE IN THE NASAL SECRETIONS

When the macrophage epithelial cell type of response is present the secretions contain many macrophages and epithelial cells. The macrophages are easily distinguished in the "supra vital" preparations, but at times the classification of the epithelial cells is difficult because of the bizarre forms which are seen. It is common to find the upper half of the

cells pinched off and then one sees curious globular ciliated cells which resemble bursting grenades. Again one may observe elongated, rounded end, finely granular cells with no visible nuclear structure which may or may not contain vacuoles holding the neutral red and which may or may not have cilia. We think that these cells represent degenerated ciliated columnar epithelial cells. The amount of neutral red taken in by the columnar cells varies from none to 7 or 8 vacuoles filled with this

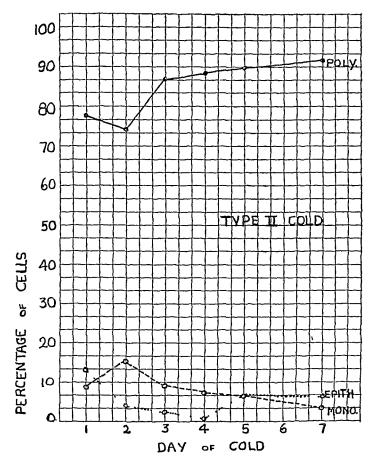


CHART II A COMMON COLD SHOWING A PREDOMINANT POLYMORPHONU-CLEAR LEUKOCYTE RESPONSE IN THE NASAL SECRETIONS

dye The recognition of the squamous epithelial cells from the posterior rhinopharynx and vestibule offers no difficulties

An evaluation of the viability of the ciliated columnar epithelial cells upon the basis of motility of the cilia and staining of the nucleus has been attempted without much success. In many preparations the cilia were highly motile, in others non-motile. We suspect that in most instances these cells are alive in the secretions, but that due to unavoid-

able crushing during the preparation of the supra vital slide the cilia are so injured that their lack of motility loses its value as a criterion of viability

The macrophages generally appeared to be alive and always showed various amounts of phagocyted material We were unable to determine the exact mechanism which regulated the degree of phagocytosis, but we believe that it depended upon the amount of cellular debris present

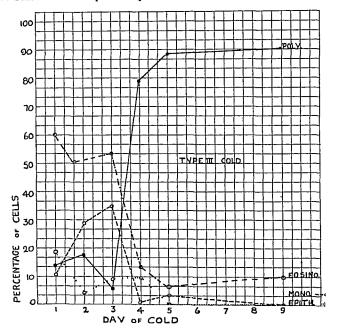


CHART III A COMMON COLD SHOWING A PRIMARY EOSINOPHILE LEUKOCYTE RESPONSE IN THE NASAL SECRETIONS

and not upon the bacterial content of the secretions Generally, in the macrophage epithelial cell type of response occasional lymphocytes and eosinophiles were present Red blood cells were encountered in the majority of specimens but a grossly bloody specimen was rarely encountered

This type of response seldom lasted more than forty eight hours By the beginning of the third day of the cold the polymorphonuclear leukocytes were abundant and by the fourth day their percentage outnumbered that of all of the other types of cells Twenty-three of the ninety-eight specimens of nasal secretions showed this type of response at the first examination

In the second type of response the percentage of polymorphonuclear leukocytes was always elevated from the first and earliest possible examination. These cells remained predominant throughout the entire course of the cold. Thirty-three of the ninety-eight specimens of nasal

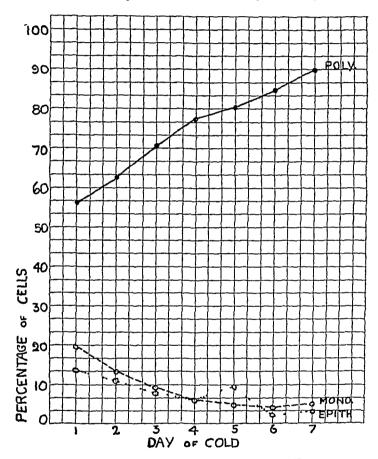


CHART IV THE AVERAGE PREDOMINANT CELLULAR RESPONSE AS DETER-MINED IN A STUDY OF THE NASAL SECRETIONS IN 98 COLDS

secretions showed 70 per cent or more polymorphonuclear leukocytes at the first examination. Thirty-nine specimens fell in between these two types of response in that the percentage of polymorphonuclears ranged between 49 and 70 in the initial specimens.

There were three interesting examples of a variation from the general types of cellular responses seen in the nasal secretions in colds. This variation occurred in individuals who gave definite histories of having repeated attacks of pollen hay fever during the past years. In these

individuals there was a marked outpouring of eosinophilic leukocytes into the nasal secretions, which persisted throughout the early stages of the cold. The eosinophiles replaced the polymorphonuclear leukocytes to a large extent without disturbing the macrophage epithelial cell formula. In each instance in which this was encountered the differential white blood cell count was well within normal limits.

It has long been known that in individuals who suffer from hay fever, the nasal submucosal tissues are heavily infiltrated with eosinophiles and that this infiltration persists during the intervals when the acute allergic process has abated. Hence it is not surprising that these individuals should react to an acute infection of the nasal mucous membranes with an eosinophilic response in their nasal secretions.

In our control group of individuals suffering from acute hay fever we invariably found a high percentage of eosinophile leukocytes in the nasal secretions. However, it was interesting to note that macrophages and epithelial cells were present in these secretions in a percentage that is commonly found in colds.

Many of the air dried smears of the nasal secretions were stained with eosin methylene blue and the cells were searched for the presence of intranuclear inclusion bodies. In several instances homogeneous acidophilic bodies were seen in the cytoplasm of columnar epithelial cells in the secretions from early colds. These closely resembled inclusion bodies but due to the lack of control studies upon normal epithelial cells we feel that the assumption that these acidophilic bodies are inclusion bodies would be unwarranted at the present time

DISCUSSION

It is our opinion that in general our findings confirm the observations of Hilding (2) Undoubtedly the first changes taking place in the nasal mucous membranes during a cold must be an intercellular edema with congestion and an infiltration of macrophages or polymorphonuclear leukocytes. The epithelial cells become swollen and soon detach them selves from the submucosa and are found free in the nasal secretions. The infiltrating macrophages and polymorphonuclear leukocytes either actively wander into the secretion or are passively swept out of the tissue spaces by the edema fluid

Within forty-eight to seventy-two hours the polymorphonuclear cells become the predominant cell in the nasal secretion and the secretion tends to change from a watery type to a mucopurulent type of discharge, and remains so throughout the remainder of the infection until the stage of crusting is over and the nasal mucous membrane has regenerated. It is well known that a monocytic tissue response is characteristic in certain virus diseases and we feel that the outpouring of monocytes seen in the nasal secretions in early colds may represent a response to the filterable agent of common colds."

We realize that it is dangerous to argue by analogy, but nevertheless, we would like to call attention to the similarity of the changes taking place in the nasal mucous membranes in colds, to those taking place in the skin during vaccinia. There is first, the stage of engorgement of the nasal mucous membranes which resembles the formation of the vaccine papule. Then comes the tissue edema and destruction of the nasal mucous membrane with an outpouring of fluid containing monocytes which corresponds to the formation of the vesicle filled with fluid in which the mononuclear elements predominate. In the third stage of the cold the secretions have a high polymorphonuclear leukocyte content as does the fluid in the pustule of vaccinia, and finally in both diseases the last stage is characterized by crusting. Here the analogy ends because in colds the mucous membrane is restored while in vaccinia a scar generally results.

CONCLUSIONS

There are two main types of cellular response found in the nasal secretions early in the course of colds. In the first type the macrophages and epithelial cells predominate and in the second the polymorphonuclear leukocytes predominate. Variations between these two types are commonly seen. By the third day of a cold the polymorphonuclear leukocytes become the chief cellular constituent of the nasal secretions. A third type of cellular response in colds in which eosinophiles predominate has been described. It is thought that these observations upon the cellular content of the nasal secretions in colds lend further evidence to the belief that a filterable agent is the cause of acute common colds.

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MAGNESIUM METABOLISM IN HYPERPARATHYROIDISM

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(Received for publication August 7, 1933)

In an earlier, rather extensive, publication in this journal on the "Functional Pathology of Hyperparathyroidism" (1) no mention was made of magnesium metabolism. Data have now been collected permitting a contribution to this phase of the subject. The methods of study were the same as described in the previous paper (1). Magnesium determinations were made by the procedure outlined by Briggs (2).

The pharmacological relationship of calcium and magnesium ions and therefore the necessity for optimum concentrations of both in body fluids suggest a close association of the mechanisms regulating their level in the blood. The fact that magnesium phosphate has solubility properties similar to calcium phosphate and the fairly constant amount of magnesium in bone hint at a specific biological relationship of their compounds.

It would seem that the parathyroid hormone might have at least an indirect influence on magnesium metabolism. The immediate effect of parathyroid hormone on serum magnesium has been studied in dogs by Scholtz (3) and by Greenburg and Mackey (4). Their investigations showed a slight increase in serum magnesium occurring early and before the rise in calcium. By the time calcium had reached maximum values the serum magnesium had fallen towards normal. Our experiments indicated that more prolonged administration of parathormone to dogs resulted in no striking alterations in serum magnesium (Table I). This was also true with rabbits in which parathormone is not very effective in raising the serum calcium.

TABLE I

The effect of continuous parathormone administration on the serum magnesium of dogs
and rabbits

| | Serum m: Before | gnesium After | |
|---|--------------------|-------------------|--|
| | mgm per 100 cc | mgm per 100 cc | |
| Dog No 1 parathormone, 50 to 300 units daily for 4 days | 3 3 | 34 | |
| Dog No 2 parathormone 50 to 300 units daily for 4 days | 30 | 5 5 | |
| Dog No 3 parathormone 50 to 100 units daily for 10 days | 2 2 | 29 | |
| Dog No 4 parathormone 50 to 100 units daily for 10 days | 2 1 | 29 | |
| Rabbit No 1 parathormone, 10 units daily for 10 days | 26 | 19 | |
| Rabbit No 2 parathermone 10 units daily for 10 days | 3 2 | 28 | |
| Rabbit No 3 parathormone, 10 units daily for 10 days | 28 | 29 | |

In clinical hypoparathyroidism serum magnesium tends to be lower than the average for normal individuals. This is not a constant or striking phenomenon. Representative values in tetany following thyroidectomy are presented in Table II. For comparison with the hypocalcaemia of parathyroid tetany this table also includes observations on patients with hypercalcaemia in generalized neoplastic disease of bone, a condition which at least simulates hyperparathyroidism. These patients also showed low normal figures for serum magnesium

TABLE II

Serum magnessum, calcium and phosphorus of cases with hypocalcaemia and cases with hypercalcaemia

| Cases with hypoparathyroidism following thyroidectomy | | | Cases with hypercalcaemia associated with generalized neoplastic disease of bone | | | | |
|---|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|--|---|------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| | Serum | | | | Serum | | |
| | Mg | Ca | Р | | Mg | Ca | Р |
| Case 11317, Tetany | mgm per 100 cc 2 1 2 6 | mgm per 100 cc 8 2 7 9 | mgm per 100 cc 4 4 4 7 | Case 22810, Metastatic Hypernephroma | mgm per 100 cc 1 9 1 9 | mgm per 100 cc 14 9 15 1 | mgm per 100 cc 2 5 2 7 |
| Case 22828, Tetany | 17 | 7 6 8 8 | 5 5 3 7 | Case CS, Multiple Myeloma | 2 4 1 8 | 13 5 18 1 | 6 8 6 2 |
| Case 23523, Tetany | 17 | 7 8 5 9 | 7 7 5 9 | Case 27621, Multiple Myeloma | 2 7 2 0 1 8 | 16 5 16 9 16 8 | 4 4 4 9 4 0 |

In hyperparathyroidism one finds evidence indicating more clearly that the parathyroid glands have no direct influence on the level of magnesium in the blood. This is illustrated in the studies of a typical case which will later be reported in detail by Olch. The data are recorded in Table III.

Case 26258 This patient, a woman forty years old, had always considered herself healthy. She was raised in the city. Her food habits appeared to have been quite normal. Diphtheria in childhood was the only serious infectious disease she remembered. She was married when seventeen years old. Her only pregnancy was at eighteen years and was apparently quite normal and was followed by an uneventful puerperium. About this time dental caries began to develop and careful cooperation with her dentist failed to save her teeth. Fillings continued to fall out and caries advanced until finally all her teeth were removed. Her weight was continuously around 125 pounds until her hospitalization.

Six years before admission the patient fell on the floor from the level of a bed and broke a clavicle. Three years later she fell on the ice and broke her left humerus. Two years before admission she developed dull pain above her

TABLE III

Indicating the influence of variations in parathyroid activity on serum magnesium

| Case 28253 Hyperparathyroidism A parathyroid | | Serum | | Date |
|---|--|--|---|---|
| adenoma removed January 8 1931 | Mg | Ca | P | |
| Before operation Before operation One day after removing parathyroid tumor Four days after removing parathyroid tumor Seven days after removing parathyroid tumor Eleven days after removing parathyroid tumor | mgm per 100 cc. 1 6 1 7 1 7 1 7 1 8 1 9 | 16 2 14 0 9 8 8 3 8 9 9 6 | mgm per 100 cc 19 23 17 17 24 21 | Nov 4, 1930 Jan 8 1931 Jan 9 1931 Jan 12, 1931 Jan 15 1931 Jan 19 1931 |
| Eighteen days after removing parathyroid tumor Three months after removing parathyroid tumor One year after removing parathyroid tumor | 2 5 2 3 2 5 | 9 5 10 7 10 2 | 2 6 2 4 3 6 | Jan 26 1931 Apr 2 1931 Dec 18, 1931 |
| Case 35690 Parathormone administration to a young woman normal except for otosclerosis | | İ | | |
| Before parathormone After 100 units parathormone in 24 hours After 160 units parathormone in 48 hours After 400 units parathormone in 5 days After 580 units parathormone in 7 days 36 hours after stopping parathormone Four days after stopping parathormone Seven days after stopping parathormone | 2 2 2 6 2 7 2 7 2 6 2 5 2 5 2 5 | 10 1 12 5 12 5 13 4 12 8 10 9 10 3 10 5 | 37 29 29 15 23 25 38 33 | Sept 20, 1932 Sept 22 1932 Sept 23, 1932 Sept 26, 1932 Sept 28 1932 Sept 30 1932 Oct 3 1932 Oct 6 1932 |

left knee This was thought to be rheumatism but, when it did not improve after months an x ray was taken. Her physician told her there was a lack of calcium in this area and that if she ever broke it healing might not take place. The pain gradually improved

The patient then felt perfectly well until June 25 1930, when she stumbled over a hedge and fell on a sidewalk and broke her left femur and right humerus X ray examinations showed these to be pathological fractures through multi locular cystic areas in the bone Further x ray studies showed similar areas in other bones especially in the pelvis and upper dorsal spine X ray also showed shadows in both kidney regions typical of bilateral nephrolithiasis

Physical examination disclosed little for comment except moderate emaciation an upper dorsal kyphosis, hyperactive deep reflexes and a systolic blood pressure of 180 and a diastolic of 100. No tumor in the thyroid region was evident. Blood examinations showed high serum calcium, low serum phosphate, a slight anemia normal nonprotein nitrogen and negative Wassermann and Kahn reactions. The basal metabolic rate was -4 per cent. Phenolsulphonephthalein excretion was 70 per cent.

On October 30 1930 surgical exploration of the thyroid region by Dr I Y Olch disclosed a small tumor, about 15 by 2 cm in size in the left lobe After this was removed the serum calcium did not fall and microscopic study showed it to be a foetal adenoma of the thyroid On January 8, 1931, the neck was explored again and a tumor 15 by 4 cm in size was found lying in a

crevice between the oesophagus and spine and attached by a pedicle to the upper pole of the left lobe of the thyroid. After removing this tumor the serum calcium fell to below normal and the patient experienced moderately distressing symptoms of tetany for about ten days.

Striking improvement in this patient's skeletal abnormalities, as evidenced by x-ray examinations, has followed operation. The improvement in her general condition has been less marked. The bilateral nephrolithiasis opposes a satisfactory course. Although there are no local symptoms, hypertension increases steadily and eventual kidney insufficiency is feared. Her general condition will not permit removal of the stones.

While in the hyperparathyroid state the serum magnesium varied from 1 6 to 2 0 mgm per 100 cc. These figures are low but within the range of normal variations. Following the removal of the parathyroid adenoma the serum calcium fell typically to values below normal, but this change in state was not attended by any alteration in the level of serum magnesium. During the three weeks following operation magnesium varied from 1 8 to 2 0. Three months later when the calcium was 10 7 mgm and phosphorus 2 4 mgm, the serum magnesium was 2 3 mgm, per 100 cc. A year after operation the figures were about the same except that the serum phosphorus had risen to normal

Studies of magnesium, calcium and phosphorus metabolism of this patient, with clinical hyperparathyroidism, are recorded in Table IV Period 9, the first included in this table, was preceded by eight similar periods in which only the calcium and phosphorus were determined in period 9, they showed the typical negative balance of these elements A definite tendency to lose magnesium in hyperparathyroidism is indicated by the data in this table A significant relationship to the hyperparathyroid state is emphasized by the change in the magnesium balance which followed the extirpation of a parathyroid adenoma As the patient was transformed to relative hypoparathyroidism and the serum calcium fell to below normal, the loss of magnesium shifted to a distinctly positive balance Magnesium was retained as large amounts of calcium and phosphorus were stored. One year after operation the patient was studied for one period on the same diet she was following at home This contained large amounts of magnesium, calcium and phosphorus, chiefly from milk The retention of the three elements was still quite marked

These modifications of magnesium excretion may be secondary to an effect of the parathyroid hormone on calcium or phosphorus of bone It is interesting to compare the ratios of the balances of magnesium, calcium and phosphorus with the proportions of these substances in bone Considering calcium as 100, one may calculate the proportions shown in Table V

It is apparent that a loss of calcium is accompanied by a loss of magnesium and phosphate and that a retention of calcium is accompanied by a retention of the other two elements as might be expected from the

TABLE IV

Magnessum calcum and phosphorus metabolssm of pattent 26253 with hyperparathyroidssn and the snfluence of removng the parathyroid adenoma Also metabolism studies of patient with generalized neoplastic disease of bone and hypercalcaenia Corresponding serum magnessum calcum and phosphorus figures are recorded in Tables II and III

| t drive canada (1970, 21) | Period | | Magn | Magnesium | | | Calcium | mnı | | | Phosphorus | horus | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|---|--|--|---|--|--|---|
| fre-ockr) anothed from | 3 | Intake | Intake Output Urine | Urine | Stool | Intake | Intake Output Urine | Urme | Stool | Intake | Intake Output Urine | Urine | Stool |
| | | grams | grams | grams | grams | grams | grams | grams | grams | grams | £rams | grams | grams |
| | | | Case 26253 | 6253 | | | | | | | | | |
| November 4 to 7 November 28 to December 1 December 2 to 5 December 6 to 9 December 10 to 13 January 13 to 16 January 17 to 20 January 27 to 28 January 27 to 20 January 27 to 20 January 27 to 20 January 27 to 20 | 13 * 113 * 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 | 1 128 1 065 0 993 1 044 0 986 0 808 0 883 0 845 2 414 | 1444 0 5 1 038 0 6 1 220 0 10 1 136 0 3 1 1009 0 11 0 057 0 15 0 671 0 0 0 671 0 0 1 854 0 5 Case 2762 | 0 539 0 634 0 106 0 365 0 157 0 137 0 196 0 0 066 0 0 554 | 0 905 0 404 1 115 1 115 0 852 0 852 0 716 0 556 1 300 | 14 41 11 76 10 29 10 29 11 42 11 40 12 11 12 11 13 82 15 82 | 22 51 7 04 13 21 10 17 13 36 8 95 10 47 7 25 3 88 7 51 | 2 24 1 79 0 73 0 0 79 0 0 09 0 0 09 0 0 09 | 20 27 5 25 12 48 9 31 12 58 8 86 10 43 7 17 3 79 | 7 00 7 02 7 20 7 28 7 38 6 39 3 24 3 24 3 20 3 20 11 25 | 8 01 7 76 6 95 5 92 1 21 2 02 2 28 1 74 6 87 | 5 02 5 65 4 445 4 488 3 66 0 20 0 76 1 21 1 09 4 86 | 2 99 2 21 3 31 2 07 2 26 1 01 1 26 1 07 2 065 |
| January 28 to February 1 February 6 to 9 | - 7 | 0 468 | 0 468 0 456 0 175 0 281 0 400 0 391 0 156 0 235 | 0 175 0 156 | 0 281 0 235 | 2 30 2 11 | 3 06 4 02 | 1 12 1 50 | 1 94 2 52 | 2 64 2 49 | 2 61 2 88 | 1 62 1 99 | 0 99 |

* In periods numbers 12, 13 and 14 irradiated ergosterol (Acterol 20 drops tid) was administered in period number 15 Medication may have caused some tendency to retention of calcum and phosphorus cod liver oil

| | Calcium | Magnesium | Phosphorus |
|-------------------------------------|---------|-----------|------------|
| | grams | grams | grams |
| Approximate proportions in bone* | 100 |) 2 | 50 |
| Loss the month before operation | 100 | 74 | 176 |
| Retention the month after operation | 100 | 23 | 314 |
| Retention one year after operation | 100 | 67 | 53 8 |

TABLE V
Ratios of magnesium and phosphorus to calcium

composition of bone Significant variations from the ratios in bone do occur but further discussion of the data would not be profitable

A study of a patient with generalized neoplastic disease of bone and hypercalcaemia is included in Table IV (Case 27621). This patient showed a markedly negative calcium balance and a slight loss of phosphorus. Nevertheless, she appeared to be in magnesium equilibrium.

Magnesium metabolism was also studied in experimental hyperpara-A young woman 27 years old, who appeared normal except for moderate undernutration and otosclerosis, was given 70 to 100 units of parathormone (Lilly) daily for eight days Magnesium, calcium, phosphorus, nitrogen and sulphur balances were investigated, before, during, and subsequent to the hyperparathyroid state. The results of four day periods of study are summarized in Table V During the preliminary observations she demonstrated an ability to retain all elements, probably because of an improved dietary regimen During the eight days of parathormone administration there was a distinct increase in magnesium output, resulting in an evident negative balance due entirely to a rise in urinary magnesium excretion The serum magnesium rose slightly When parathormone was discontinued there was a prompt storing of magnesium but no change in the level in the In these observations the mobilization of calcium and phosphorus was quite typical The excessive phosphorus excretion was greater than could be accounted for by calcium phosphate liberated and the magnitude of the increased protein metabolism. This surplus phosphorus was more than enough to explain the magnesium loss as magnesium phosphate released from the body. In the recovery period the retention of phosphorus could reasonably be accounted for by magnesium phosphate, calcium phosphates, and protein restored

The negative nitrogen and sulphur balance caused by parathormone may be related to the local inflammatory and slight general febrile reactions caused by the material injected rather than any specific effect of the hormone itself

^{*} Analysis of bone from another case of hyperparathyroidism gave the following figures Calcium 15 39 per cent, magnesium 0 23 per cent, and phosphorus 6 89 per cent These would give ratios of 100 1 5 45

TABLE VI

Magnessum, calcum phosphorus nutrogen and sulphur metabolism in four day periods of patient 35690, showing the effect of administering para thormone for eight days Parathermone was given through periods number 2 and 3. The amounts of parathormone and corresponding serum magnessum, calcum; and phosphorus figures are recorded in Table III.

| 4 day periods (1932) Periods (1932) Periods (1932) Periods (1932) Periods (1932) Periods (1933) | | Z | Magnesium | lum | | | Calcum | H H | | | Phosphorus | orus | | | Nitrogen | đ | | : | Sulphur | ur | |
|---|----------------------|---|---|---|--|---|---|---|--|--|---|--|---|---|--|------------------------------------|-----------|--|---|--|---|
| gruns, gram, | 4 day periods (1932) | Intakeou | utput | Urine | Stool | Intake | Output | Urine | Stool | Intake | Output | Urine | Stool | Intake | Output | Urnne | Stool | Intake | Output | Urne | Stool |
| | 1 | 6 859 0 0 923 1 0 0 945 0 0 1 0 0 5 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | 7ams 821 871 184 184 847 | 57475 0 406 0 503 0 816 0 337 | grams 0 415 0 368 0 368 0 525 0 403 | grams 2 74 2 68 2 68 2 84 3.37 3.21 | grams 2 08 3 11 3 48 3 55 2 91 | grams 0 63 1 41 1 78 0 87 0 80 | 674315 145 170 170 2 68 2 111 | grams 378 354 366 407 434 | grams 3 08 5 45 5 01 3 50 3 30 | 226 226 225 281 281 226 | grams 1 12 2 20 2 20 1 75 1 75 | grams 35 0 30 7 35 1 34 6 38 2 | grams grams grams grams 324 294 30 2.76 2.85 340 26 2.85 316 279 37 2.79 310 273 37 3.03 | 229 4 32.5 34.0 27.9 27.9 | 32 560 37 | 2.76 2.19 2.19 2.85 2.85 3.03 | grams grams grams 229 204 025 255 231 024 270 246 024 241 205 036 241 207 0.34 | 2 04 2 31 2 46 2 46 2 05 2 07 | grams 0 25 0 24 0 24 0 36 0 36 |

* By accident the stools of periods numbers 2 and 3 were mixed assumed for each period

CONCLUSIONS

In the hyperparathyroid state there is a negative magnesium balance Individuals reverting from hyperparathyroidism to normal or the hypoparathyroid state store magnesium. Little evidence was obtained indicating the parathyroid glands have any direct effect on the level of magnesium in the blood. The influence of the parathyroid hormone on magnesium metabolism may be secondary to its action on calcium or phosphorus.

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IMMUNITY IN DIABETES INFLUENCE OF DIABETES ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANTIBACTERIAL PROPERTIES IN THE BLOOD

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(Received for publication August 8 1933)

Notwithstanding the well known association of diabetes and infection we have little definite knowledge of the mechanism by which these two conditions affect each other. Since the days of Claude Bernard, clinicians have viewed with alarm either the appearance of infection during the course of diabetes or, perhaps with less apprehension, the occurrence of diabetes during or following an infection. In considering the coincidence of these disorders one might distinguish between the effect of each upon the other as different though essentially interdependent problems Various degrees of importance have been accorded to infection in the etiology of diabetes but there is general agreement regarding the harmful effect of infection when occurring during the course of diabetes

The resistance of the body to infection is attributed in part to the antigen amboceptor complement reactions of the blood. We have no knowledge regarding the influence of diabetes on these reactions nor on the formation of amboceptor or complement. The former may be present in the blood, as in natural immunity, or it may be formed following the inoculation of bacteria into the body, as in acquired immunity. Complement appears to be always present and to react with either type of amboceptor. In this study, complement, natural amboceptor and acquired amboceptor, as factors in the antibacterial power of the blood, have been investigated in diabetic and non diabetic persons to determine whether this part of the protective mechanism of the blood is affected by diabetes.

The complement of the serum was measured in hemolytic and bacteriolytic systems. The bactericidal power of the whole blood was chosen as the best method of determining the native amboceptor (1, 2). The formation of agglutinins following inoculation with B typhosus vaccine was taken as the index of formation of acquired amboceptor.

COMPLEMENT

Method The hemolytic complement was measured in the sheep-rabbit hemolytic system. One half cc. amounts of a 2 per cent suspension of washed sheep cells with an excess of amboceptor were taken with

increasing amounts of patients' serum and the total contents of each tube brought up to 3 cc with normal saline. The amount of serum necessary to provide an excess of amboceptor had been determined by preliminary titration. The tubes were then incubated at 37.5° C for 1 hour and the titre read as the smallest amount of serum that caused complete hemolysis. The sera were all fresh, the tests being done about 5 hours after the blood had been collected. On account of the variation in sheep cells, both diabetic and normal sera were set up in every series. Whether the patients were taking insulin was noted.

The patients were selected to represent wide variations of diabetes as regards severity, age, use of insulin and state of nutrition A blood sugar was done on each blood taken

The bacteriolytic complement was measured by means of the bacteriolytic action of diabetic and non-diabetic sera on *B typhosus* An excess of amboceptor in the form of human serum heated to 56° C for 30 minutes was added to increasing amounts of patients' sera and 0 1 cc of 24 hour broth culture of the organism After 24 hours the tubes were cultured on blood agar plates and the titre taken as the lowest amount of serum which completely killed the *B typhosus*

Results In all, 208 diabetic and 102 non-diabetic sera of patients without infection were examined. Of these, 191 diabetic and 97 non-diabetic were measured in the hemolytic system, while 17 diabetic and 5 non-diabetic individuals were used to determine the bacteriolytic complement. The complement titre of the serum in the non-diabetics varied from 0 020 cc to 0 140 cc with an average of 0 056 cc, while in the diabetics it varied from 0 030 cc to 0 120 cc with an average of 0 052 cc.

In the measurement of bacteriolytic complement similar agreement was found. The titre of both diabetic and non-diabetic sera lay within the same range, namely, between 0 010 cc. and 0 075 cc.

Furthermore, diabetic patients with infection showed no change in the amount of their complement titre as compared with non-diabetics with infection. Nineteen of the former and 12 non-diabetics were set up. In each group the titre varied between 0 020 cc. and 0 080 cc. The averages for these groups were 0 040 cc. and 0 052 cc. respectively. It is evident from these studies that there is no significant variation.

It is evident from these studies that there is no significant variation from normal in the amount of complement present in the blood of patients with diabetes regardless of whether the blood sugar was high or low and whether or not they were taking insulin. The presence of infection did not appear to alter the complement content of the blood

BACTERICIDAL EXAMINATIONS

Since Nuttall in 1888 demonstrated the bactericidal action of whole blood, two methods of measuring the antibacterial titre have been

commonly selected Todd (1) and others following Wright used de fibrinated blood, while Heist (2) used fresh coagulable blood Both of these methods were employed in the present study with each patient and control Five organisms were used throughout the entire series of determinations, namely, B coli, Pneumococcus, Staphylococcus aureus, Streptococcus hemolyticus and Streptococcus viridans B typhosus and B pyocyaneus were also included in some experiments. Because of the length of time necessary to complete the work, cultures which had been growing as laboratory strains for some time were taken so that there would be little variation in their behavior. All of the organisms had been in artificial cultivation for at least a year. Transplants were made at frequent intervals on human blood agar and from these, broth cultures were made 18 hours before the test and incubated at 37.5° C. Blood sugar determinations were done on all blood specimens.

The defibrinated blood was used according to the method of Todd as given by Ward (3) Defibrination was done in 150 cc flasks containing glass beads and leukocyte counts were made in a number of cases before and after shaking in order to determine the loss in leukocytes Dilutions of 1/10, 1/100, 1/1000, 1/10,000, 1/100,000 and 1/1,000,000 of the 18 hour broth cultures were made, and 01 cc of each dilution was placed in one of a series of small glass tubes There was then added to each tube 0.5 cc of defibrinated blood The tubes were sealed by heat, and placed in a rack attached to an electric motor so as to revolve at the rate of about 6 revolutions per minute The entire apparatus was placed rotating in the incubator at 37 5° C At the end of 24 hours the tubes were opened and cultures were made on human blood agar plates These were incubated for 48 hours and examined for growth In each test also, human blood agar plates were seeded with 0 1 cc of the 1/100,000 dilution of each organism and the colonies counted after incubation for 24 hours

In order to minimize the effect of variations in the number of bacteria present in the 18 hour broth cultures, each determination consisted of one normal and two diabetic persons, except in four instances when only one diabetic was used. As far as possible attempt was made to get a severe and a mild diabetic to compare with each non-diabetic control. Controls were members of the Institute Staff and medical students.

The fresh coagulable blood was used according to the method of Heist (2) Into sterile, cotton stoppered test tubes, 85 × 15 mm, were placed 0.1 cc of the same dilutions of the five organisms as already described, and these overlaid with 0.5 cc. of freshly drawn blood. The tubes were gently shaken and allowed to stand until coagulated, when they were placed in the incubator at 37.5° C. After 24 hours, cultures were made and examined as in the method with defibrinated blood. Sugar determinations were done on all specimens of blood.

Results The results of the bactericidal tests by the method using coagulable blood are given in Table I In these are shown the number of diabetic patients whose blood killed the same number of organisms

TABLE I

Comparison of number of organisms killed by diabetic blood with number killed by non-diabetic blood (Coagulable blood method)

| | blood k 100 bacteri | fold le | least ss non | appro same bact | etics vood kil ximate numb eria as etic co | led ly the er of non- | blood 10 bact | 0 fold | at least more an non- | Total patients |
|--|---------------------------|------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|--|--------------------------------|---------------------|--------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| Bacteria killed by diabetic blood Bacteria killed by non diabetic blood | 1 10 000 | 1 000 | 1 100 | 1 10 | i | 10 | 100 | 1 000 | 10 000 | |
| B coli Pneumococcus Staphylococcus aureus Streptococcus hemolyticus Streptococcus viridans | 2 3 3 | 3 7 4 6 | 2 8 5 6 3 | 17 12 14 10 16 | 19 14 6 14 14 | 8 4 7 6 2 | 1 3 1 1 | 1 2 | 1 | 46 46 44 44 46 |

as the normal control and the number whose blood killed less than or more than the control. This method of reporting the results of the tests was adopted because it seemed the simplest way in which the influence of variation in number of bacteria in the broth cultures could be eliminated. The diabetic bloods were compared only with the normal bloods which had been set up at the same time, with the same broth cultures. The difference between the largest and smallest numbers of bacteria in the series of cultures of any one organism was less than the 10-fold dilution which was used between successive tubes of the determinations, so that even if this variation were not considered, the error would be less than one dilution in the series of 6 tubes.

It will be noted that the distribution of cases shows that diabetic patients in general are less able to kill the test bacteria than the non-diabetic controls. This seems to be especially true with the gram positive cocci against which phagocytosis has been shown to be especially effective. It appears that the diabetic tends to be deficient in whatever antibacterial bodies are naturally present in the blood. From Table II it is evident that there is no significant correlation of distribution of the antibacterial power of the blood with variations in the blood sugar. There seems to be some factor in the diabetic, other than the blood sugar at the time of the determination, which influences the bactericidal effect.

A comparison of results of the methods using defibrinated and coagulable blood gave essentially similar results. The same difference between diabetic and non-diabetic bloods could be recognized in both. The method with coagulable blood generally showed a slightly higher bactericidal titre than did the method with defibrinated blood.

TABLE II

Comparison of organisms killed by diabetic blood containing over 200 mgm and under 200 mgm of sugar to those killed by non diabetic blood

| Bacteria killed by diabetic blood Bacteria killed by non diabetic blood | 1 10 000 | 1 000 | 100 | 10 | 1 | 10 | 100 | 1 000 | 10 000 |
|--|----------|--------|-----|---------|---------|--------|-----|-------|--------|
| B cols Under 200 mgm Over 200 mgm | | i I | 1 1 | 8 9 | 12 7 | 6 2 | | | |
| Pueumococcus Under 200 mgm Over 200 mgm | 2 | 1 2 | 5 3 | 8 4 | 8 6 | 1 3 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Staphylococcus aureus Under 200 mgm Over 200 mgm | | 5 2 | 3 2 | 11 3 | 5 | 4 3 | 1 2 | 2 | |
| Streptococcus hemolyticus Under 200 mgm Over 200 mgm | 2 | 3 | 6 | 8 2 | 9 | 4 2 | | 1 | |
| Streplococcus viridans Under 200 mgm Over 200 mgm | 2 1 | 4 2 | 2 1 | 10 6 | 8 6 | 2 | 1 | 1 | |

Conclusions Diabetic whole blood, regardless of the level of its blood sugar, has in general a weaker bactericidal property than has non-diabetic whole blood as tested by standard methods

ANTIBODY FORMATION

In addition to the presence of complement and natural amboceptor, immunity against bacterial infection is influenced by the ability of the body to form antibodies for specific infections. In order to compare the formation of an acquired antibody in diabetic and non-diabetic persons, the response to typhoid vaccine was investigated.

Methods Three doses, 500 million, 1000 million and 1000 million respectively of B typhosus vaccine were given subcutaneously at intervals of seven days to 41 diabetic and 39 non diabetic persons. Record was kept of the occurrence of local or general reactions in both series reactions, if present, being noted as slight, moderate or severe

The vaccine used was freshly made in order to get the highest possible agglutinative titre in the blood. It was given first to the diabetic patients and later to the non-diabetic controls. There was probably very little difference in the potency of the vaccine in the two series as the last inoculation was given within 8 weeks of the time of making the vaccine.

Blood for determination of agglutinative titre was taken 2 weeks and 10 weeks after the last dose The titre was determined by Dreyer's (4) macroscopic method, using typhoid antigen killed and preserved by

¹ Furnished through the courtesy of Lederle Laboratories Inc. for this work

formalin The same strain of *B typhosus* from which the vaccine was made was procured from the makers for the purpose of making the antigen. The same antigen was used throughout the 8 weeks. Known positive and negative sera were run with each determination, the positive serum regularly clumping the antigen at a dilution of 1/20,480.

The non-diabetic controls consisted of the entering class of nurses at the Methodist Episcopal Hospital in Philadelphia The diabetic patients were ambulatory cases from the clinic, and varied in severity, though none were in such condition that giving the vaccine would be a dangerous procedure It was impractical to get the patients of the same young age group as the controls though most of the former were under Frequent blood and urine examinations were made, and on the basis of these, as well as of the clinical condition, the patients were divided into three groups, namely, those in good, fair and poor clinical condition The first were those who had always a normal blood sugar with no sugar in the urine and who felt generally well group comprised those who were in fair condition and who more or less successfully maintained their diets, their blood sugar levels lay between 140 and 200 mgm per 100 cc, and glycosuria was sometimes present The third were those who always had a blood sugar over 200 mgm and sugar in most, if not all, of the urine specimens

TABLE III

A gglutinative titre of diabetic patients and non-diabetic controls

| | == | == | == | | | | | | === | | |
|---|------|------|------|--------|-----------------------|-----------|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|------------------|--------------|
| 1 | 1/20 | 1/40 | 1/80 | 1/160 | 1/320 | 1/640 | 1/1280 | 1/2560 | 1/5120 | 1/10240 | 1/20480 |
| | | 2 | week | s afte | er vac | cine | | | | | |
| Non-diabetics Diabetics Good clinical condition Fair clinical condition Poor clinical condition | | | 1 | 1 2 2 | 2 1 1 | 6 2 4 | 1 7 3 2 2 | 4 5 1 3 1 | 6 10 1 6 3 | 7 6 2 4 | 20 2 1 |
| | | 10 | wee | ks aft | er va | ccine | | | | | |
| Non-diabetics Diabetics Good clinical condition Fair clinical condition Poor clinical condition | | 1 | 1 3 | 2 1 | 1 6 1 2 3 | 2 6 1 2 3 | 15 4 9 2 | 4 4 1 2 1 | 11 3 2 1 | 19 | 1 |

Results In Table III are shown the results of the agglutination tests. It is quite evident that there is a marked difference in the titre of the diabetic and non-diabetic series at the end of both 2 weeks and 10 weeks. Fifty per cent of the non-diabetics agglutinated at a dilution

of 1/20,480 compared with 5 per cent of the diabetics, and 84 per cent of the non diabetics agglutinated at 1/5120 or above, compared with 44 per cent of the diabetics. The persistence of titre of the serum for 8 weeks is much less in the diabetics than in the non diabetics. At the end of this time 81 per cent of the non diabetics were found to agglutinate at a dilution of 1/5120 or more compared with 7 per cent of the diabetics. The effect of the high blood sugar on the formation of antibodies does not appear to be definite, though there is perhaps a slightly less effective formation in the patients whose diabetic condition is described as poor

The author wishes to acknowledge with thanks many helpful criticisms and suggestions by Dr Herbert Fox and Dr J Harold Austin Thanks are due also to Miss Elizabeth F Barth, Miss Peggy C Kostal and Miss Jessie Paul for technical assistance

SUMMARY

Complement in the blood of diabetic patients does not differ in amount from that in the blood of non-diabetics. This is true whether or not infection is present

The antibacterial power of the blood of diabetic patients as measured by standard methods tends to be less than that of non diabetics

Diabetic patients are less able than non diabetic controls to form agglutinins following their inoculation with typhoid vaccine

From these studies it appears that any deficiency in the antibacterial reactions of the blood of the diabetic comes rather from impairment of the amboceptor than from any lack of amount or activity of the complement. This is true of both the natural amboceptor as shown by the bactericidal test, and of the acquired amboceptor, as shown by formation of agglutinins.

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 Further Remarks on Agglutination Tests in Inoculated Persons and
 the Influence of Febrile Conditions on Inoculation Agglutinins



A NOTE ON THE CALCULATION OF WATER EXCHANGE

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(Received for publication July 13, 1933)

In a recent publication (1), Peters, Kydd, and Lavietes have "simplified" the method proposed by Newburgh and Johnston (2) for determining water exchange Later publications from this laboratory (3), in which it was shown that the calculation of heat production directly from the insensible loss of weight is not accurate, have an important bearing on the suggestion of Peters, Kydd and Lavietes who propose to calculate heat production directly from the insensible loss of weight by means of their Equation 2

where I L expresses insensible loss of weight per hour. This equation is derived from the data of Benedict and Root (4), who demonstrated the fact that the insensible loss of weight is roughly proportional to the heat production in the basal state.

We have found that this relationship is not quantitative for long periods of varying activity during which food is ingested, because the RO does not remain uniform, as it tends to in the basal state

The nature of the insensible loss of weight may be expressed algebraically as follows

$$IL = HO + CO_{*} - O$$

It is obvious from the above equation that the only factor concerned in the dissipation of heat is the water that leaves the organism as vapor and carries with it 58 cal per gram. We have demonstrated that the heat lost in this way is 24 per cent of the total heat when certain precautions are in effect. Hence, the relationship is one between the vaporization of water and heat rather than between the insensible loss of weight and heat. While the water vapor is a component of the insensible loss of weight, there is no strictly quantitative relationship between the two, as may be seen from the following table.

| | Water Vapor | I L. |
|-------|--------------|--------------|
| R.Q | grams/~4 hrs | grams/34 hrs |
| 1 00 | 978 | 1193 |
| 0 82 | 978 | 1054 |
| 0 707 | 978 | 940 |
| | 1151 | |

,

When the heat production calculated by the method proposed by us is compared with the "simplified" method advocated by Peters and his associates, the following values are obtained

| R Q | According to Newburgh et al | According to Peters et al |
|-------|--------------------------------|------------------------------|
| | Cal/24 hours | Cal/24 hours |
| 1 00 | 2367 | 2116 |
| 0 82 | 2367 | 1833 |
| 0 707 | 2367 | 1403 |

Therefore the Equation 2 of Peters, Kydd and Lavietes entails a serious error which limits the value of the subsequent equations that depend upon the validity of this one

We agree with Peters, Kydd and Lavietes that preformed water should not be included in the water balance if one follows the standard practice in regard to balances However, consideration of preformed water, as employed by Newburgh and Johnston, gives information that could not otherwise be obtained They desired to secure a precise statement of the expected change in body weight in response to any given diet It seemed proper to assume that, in the adult subject, there is an optimum value for the total volume of the circulating fluids The water of the body is either part of this circulating fluid or of the protoplasm It is generally recognized that, in the absence of disease, the per cent of water in the protoplasm is constant Hence, any change in body weight that was not explained by change in the mass of protoplasm (i.e. solids plus their associated water), would be attributable to change in the volume of the circulating fluids This latter phenomenon would then be a departure from the theoretical optimum To evaluate this response, it was necessary to know how much water was to be apportioned to the gain or loss of protoplasmic solids This increment of water was accordingly added algebraically to the sources of water, and was called "Preformed Water" Newburgh and Johnston were not concerned with the question whether such water is "free" or "bound"

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THE RATE OF EXCRETION OF URINE IN SUBJECTS WITH DIFFERENT AMOUNTS OF RENAL TISSUE 1

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(Received for publication August 9 1933)

In the vast literature on renal function, there is to be found only one method proposed as an indirect means of measuring the mass of functioning kidney tissue, namely, the Addis Ratio (1) $\frac{\text{Urea in one hour's urine}}{\text{Urea in 100 cc}}$ of blood, under certain special conditions of diuresis and high blood urea concentration). That this method is an accurate index of functioning renal tissue has been shown by several considerations, summarized by MacKay (2). In each of three species (rat, rabbit, and dog), the value of the Ratio bears a direct linear relationship to the actual weight of the kidneys In man, a similar relationship has been demonstrated between the Ratio and body surface, while body surface and kidney weight are in turn in straight line association.

The purpose of this paper is to study in man the relation between the amount of functioning renal tissue (as measured by the Ratio) and the volume of urine per unit of time under conditions designed to induce "minimum" and "maximum" rates of excretion ² MacKay and MacKay (3) have already demonstrated the relation between the blood urea concentration and the amount of functioning renal tissue (similarly measured)

LITERATURE

Under stringent conditions of (a) urea and water administration and (b) withdrawal of dietary fluids. Addis (4) found in man a relationship between the amount of kidney tissue and the rates of urine excretion. He suggested that the disturbing influence of extra renal factors on the excretion rates might be diminished by using a "volume quotient" (the quotient obtained by dividing the "maximum" volume per hour by the "minimum" volume per hour) with which to predict kidney mass

Experimentally, the amount of renal tissue has been altered by subtotal nephrectomy, ligation of renal artery branches, and ligation of

¹ Supported by a grant from the Rockefeller Fluid Research Fund

² It must be emphasized that no true minimum or "maximum" rate of urine excretion is attained. These terms are used throughout this paper for brevity, and signify that the conditions are such as to induce a slow or rapid rate.

kidney poles Bradford (5) found in dogs a "considerable and practically permanent increase in the amount of urine passed" after about two-thirds of the total kidney mass had been excised, after the excision of three-fourths of the kidney mass, the polyuria was more marked Mark (6), also in dogs, found that there was a reduction in the "maximum" rate of urine excretion when only small amounts of kidney remained, while the "minimum" rate of excretion increased Chanutin and Ferris (7) observed the rate of urine excretion when water intake was restricted in rats after kidney pole ligation Table 1 shows the mean values derived from their protocols

"Minimum" rate of urine excretion in rats from which portions of the kidneys had been removed by pole ligation (After Chanutin and Ferris (7))

| Kidney weight per cent of normal | "Concentra | ation test ' |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------|------------------|
| per cent of normal | Cc per 24 hours | Specific gravity |
| 100 0 | 2 4 | 1 058 |
| 75 6 | 10 8 | 1 024 |
| 66 6 | 15 0 | 1 017 |
| 31 2 | 15 6 | 1 014 |

As yet, no data have appeared showing in statistical terms how the rate of urine excretion is related to the mass of kidney tissue—Obviously, it would be very useful clinically if one could predict renal mass merely by measuring the volume of urine excreted in a given time—It was to determine whether this could be done that the present study was undertaken

METHODS

Five hundred and twenty-four sets of observations, collected in this laboratory during the past 10 years, were analysed by standard statistical methods (8, 9) In each set the data included the (a) Addis Ratio as per cent of normal, (b) maximum rate of urine excretion as induced by water and urea administration, and (c) minimum rate of urine excretion as induced by withdrawing liquids from the diet

Subjects The subjects were, for the most part, ambulatory patients with Bright's disease of varying type, severity, and duration (Some were normal as judged by the Ratio, urinary sediment, and absence of proteinuria) Age varied from 9 to 63 years Body surface varied from 0 83 to 2 50 square meters, with a mean of 1 72 sq m The majority were males Many subjects were studied more than once

Diet The diet varied with the type of the disease being treated Most subjects were taking a diet low in salt and adequate in protein and calories

Edema A few subjects were seen when edematous and again in edema-free periods All observations were included in the analysis

Conditions Each subject received a copy of the following printed directions

DIRECTIONS

1 After breakfast take no fluids of any sort until next morning This means no coffee, tea soup milk, etc., as well as no water

This means no coffee, tea soup milk, etc., as well as no wate 2 At 9 00 P M that evening void urine and throw it away

Do not void for some hours before 9 00 P M so that you may have no difficulty in emptying the bladder completely

After 9 00 P M if possible do not void urine again until next morning, but if it is necessary pass the urine directly into the special bottle which is provided

3 At 6 00 A M next morning pass urine directly into the special bottle

4 At 602 AM 1e immediately after collecting the night urine in the special bottle, drink a large glass of water in which the urea in the box has been dissolved. Then during the next half hour slowly drink three other large glasses of water. The water may be taken hot if desired.

5 At 7 A M void and throw away urine Drink two glasses of water

slowly

6 At 8 A M void and throw away urine Drink two glasses of water slowly

7 At 8 50 A M be in the laboratory

8 Take no breakfast

After the subject came to the laboratory, his urine was collected and measured for three consecutive hours and blood specimens were withdrawn at the middle of each collection period. The rate of urea excretion (mgm in one hour's urine) and the concentration of urea in the blood (mgm in 100 cc.) were determined, from this data the Ratio was calculated and expressed as per cent of normal for the subject's body surface (1)

Minimum volume The volume of urine excreted during the restriction of dietary fluids was divided by the elapsed time to obtain the rate of excretion as cubic centimeters per hour. This rate was adjusted to the mean body surface of the group (1.72 sq. m.) before statistical analysis.

Specific gravity of the "concentration test" The specific gravity of the urine obtained during restriction of fluids was measured by a hydrometer at room temperature. No correction was made for proteinuria

Maximum volume The maximum rate of excretion of urine in any one of the three hour periods during the execution of the Ratio was selected and expressed as cubic centimeters per hour Before statistical analysis, this rate was corrected to a body surface of 1 72 sq $\,$ m The specific gravity of this urine was not recorded

 $\begin{tabular}{lll} \hline \textit{Volume quotient} & This variable & \frac{maximum\ volume}{minimum\ volume} \ was\ calculated\ in \\ each\ of\ the\ 524\ sets\ of\ observations,\ there\ was\ no\ need\ to\ correct\ it \\ for\ surface\ area & \\ \hline \end{tabular}$

Statistical terms A few terms should be explained briefly for those not familiar with statistical methods (8, 9)

- a Correlation coefficient (r) is a measure of the correlation of two variables when the means of the arrays fall upon a straight line, within the errors of sampling (An array is a row or a column of a correlation table)
- b Correlation ratio (η) is a measure of the correlation of two variables without regard to the linearity of the means of the arrays. The value of η given here is corrected in each case to allow for the influence of the number of the arrays (18). When $\zeta/P \to r$ is greater than 3, η is significantly greater than r, and may be used in place of r ($\zeta = \eta^2 r^2$)
 - c Standard deviation (σ) is a measure of dispersion or variation
- d Regression lines are lines formed by plotting the means of the arrays. In this study curves have been fitted to them, when possible, by the method of least-squares. In every correlation of two variables, there are two regression lines (one the means of the rows, the other the means of the columns) when they are at right angles, correlation is nil, when they coincide, correlation is unity. It is important to bear in mind that the regression of x on y allows x to be predicted when y is known, the regression of y on x allows y to be predicted when x is known

RESULTS

The results of the statistical analyses are presented in Table 2, Correlation Tables 3-6, Regression Tables 7-10, and in Figures 1-5

DISCUSSION

General considerations The regressions were curvilinear ($\zeta/P \to \zeta>3$) in the correlations of the Ratio with minimum volume, specific gravity of the concentration test, and volume quotient. The only linear regression ($\zeta/P \to \zeta<3$) was found in the case of the maximum volume, which also showed the highest correlation with the Ratio

On theoretical grounds one expects that, of two tests of function having the same correlation ratios (η) with the mass of functioning kidney tissue, the test which has the more linear regression with renal weight would be the better test clinically. Thus, the correlation ratio (η) of blood urea concentration with the Addis Ratio is -0.90 ($\zeta/P \to 0.00$). From which η was calculated, shows that the mass of kidney tissue may decrease to as little as 50 per cent of normal before the blood urea changes appreciably in concentration. Despite the high correlation ratio, the fact that the curve of the plotted observations is far from linear signifies that the blood urea concentration is an insensitive test of kidney mass. The MacKays' curve, in fact, approaches the shape of a rectangular hyperbola, any variable which actually formed the latter curve when plotted against kidney weight would plainly be useless as a clinical test, even though the correlation approached unity

Therefore, the maximum rate of urine excretion, because it happens to have a linear regression and a comparatively high correlation with the Ratio, is the best measure of kidney mass of those variables studied in this paper

TABLE 2

Statistical characteristics of the Addis Ratio (per cent of normal) with minimum volume specific gravity of concentration test maximum volume and volume quotient. The Addis Ratio is denoted by x in each instance the other variable by y

| Characteristic | Minimum volume | Specific gravity concentration test | Mazimum volume | Volume quotient |
|--------------------------|-----------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------|------------------|
| , | - 0 354 ± 0 026 | $+0.530\pm0.021$ | + 0 697 ± 0 015 | $+0.568\pm0.020$ |
| η _{zy} ζ/PΕ; | - 0 351 | + 0 577 4 00 | + 0 710 2 39 | + 0 683 7 44 |
| עיי ג/P E נ | - 0 399 3 23 | + 0 554 2 77 | + 0 705 1 84 | |
| M_x | 62 53 ± 0 77 | 62 53 ± 0 77 | 62 53 ± 0 77 | 62 53 ± 0 77 |
| M_y | 31 88 ± 0 54 | 1 0255 ± 0 0002 | 437 3 ± 5 73 | 17 95 ± 0 36 |
| σε | 26 01 ± 0 52 | 26 01 ± 0 52 | 26 01 ± 0 52 | 26 01 ± 0 52 |
| σμ | 18 22 ± 0 38 | 0 0072 ± 0 0001 | 194 4 ± 4 05 | 12 29 ± 0 25 |
| N | 524 | 520 | 524 | 524 |

Regression of Addis Ratio (per cent of normal) on minimum volume x = 78628 - 0505y

Regression of Addis Ratio (per cent of normal) on specific gravity of concentration test x = 1909y - 1896

Regression of Addis Ratio (per cent of normal) on maximum volume x = 0.0933y + 21.728

Regression of Addis Ratio (per cent of normal) on volume quotient $x = 75.3 + 0.1243y - 60.89e^{-0.1202y}$

Prediction of the amount of kidney tissue Figure 1 shows in line-chart form the most probable predictions of the amount of functioning kidney tissue (expressed as per cent of the normal Ratio) from a given rate of urine excretion under the conditions outlined above Each line in the chart represents the calculated regression line of the Ratio on the appropriate variable

In 50 cases, the Ratio was predicted (by means of Figure 1) from the maximum volume, minimum volume, specific gravity of the concentration test, and volume quotient, the predictions were compared with the actual Ratios and the root mean square deviations (8) of the errors calculated The deviations were 29 8 for the minimum volume, 19 9 for the maximum volume, and 22 1 for both the volume quotient and the

Correlation table Addis Ratio (per cent of normal) and minimum volume (cubic centimeters/hour/172 sg m)

| | Totals | 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 1 1 2 0 2 0 2 0 2 0 3 3 5 4 8 1 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 1 | 524 |
|-------------------------------|---------------|---|----------|
| | 115- 119 9 | H H | 2 |
| | 110- | 2 2 2 | 3 |
| | 105- 109 9 | H 044 | 1 |
| | 100- | 24174 | 15 |
| | 95- 99 9 | 4 4 7 20 | 17 |
| | 90- 949 | 2 8 111 111 | 31 |
| | 85- 89 9 | 8 4 4 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 | 36 |
| | 80- 84 9 | 1 1 7 15 10 | 34 |
| rmal | 75- | 1 1 4 6 113 20 | 45 |
| Addis Ratio—per cent of norma | 70- | 2 1 2774 | 23 |
| cent | 669 | 2 6 9 4 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 | 37 |
| -per | 60°- 64 9 | 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 | 33 |
| tatio | 55- 59 9 | 1 128001140 | 45 |
| ldıs I | 54 9 | 100 41 | 29 |
| ĕ | 45- | 418281141 | 26 |
| | 44 9 | 170000 0 | 17 |
| | 35- | 448800 | 17 |
| | 34 9 | 2441408 | 34 |
| | 25- | 1 1 1100000 | 22 |
| | 24.9 | 7 11771 7 7 | 6 |
| } } | 15- | T 2140 | 11 |
| | -04 14 9 | | 14 |
| | 5-0 | 4 4 4844 | |
| <u> </u> | -04 04 | 1 11 | <u>s</u> |
| | | 140-149 9 130-139 9 120-129 9 110-119 9 100-109 9 80- 89 9 70- 79 9 60- 69 9 50- 59 9 40- 49 9 30- 39 9 10- 19 9 0- 9 9 | Totals |
| | | Млитит volume—cc /hour | |

TABLE 4 Correlation table Addis Ratio (per cent of normal) and specific gravity of concentration less

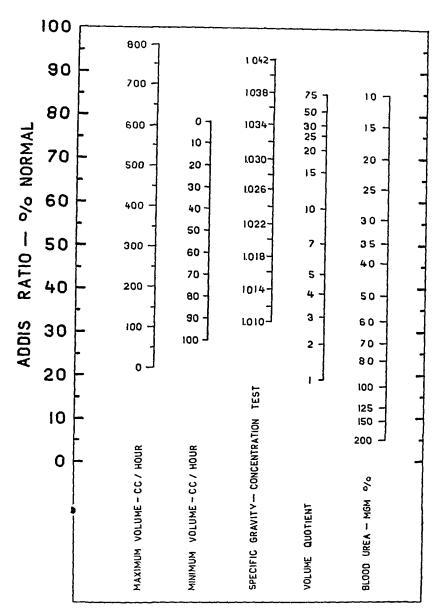
| Totale | | 1 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 | 520 |
|--------------------------------|--------------|--|--------|
| | 115- | | 7 |
| | 15.0 | R | מו |
| | 105- | 1 | = |
| | इंद्र | 7 77 7 77 77 77 | 15 |
| | 38 | न नस्तरात्र न | 17 |
| - { | 92 | 0 www.www 04 | 30 |
| | 88-9 | 004rvv4v= 4 | 35 |
| | 84.9 44.9 | | 33 |
| lan | 75- 79 9 | | 44 |
| Addis Ratio—per cent of normal | 74.9 | 64646 C - | 22 |
| ent o | -59 | - 4048724- | 37 |
| per | 92 | ⊣ഗപല4040401 | 33 |
| 育 | 55.0 | 000ccou400 -0 | 49 |
| ls Ra | 198 | 884888 G | 59 |
| Add | 10 | 1 204222 21 | 28 |
| | 104 | 2 24-2 | 12 |
| | 35- | x | = |
| | 34.9 | 2 4164 848484 | 34 |
| | 28.9 | H H H40500H H | 22 |
| | 742 | 1 2 1 2 5 | ٥ |
| | 70 | 1 88 7 | = |
| 1 | 94 | - 66666 | 4 |
| | 7.00 | 322 | ∞ |
| | Ŷ 2 | 7 7 | 3 |
| | | 1046-1047 1044-1043 1042-1043 1040-1041 1038-1033 1036-1037 1036-1033 1036-1033 1036-1033 1028-1023 1028-1023 1028-1023 1028-1023 1028-1023 1028-1023 1021-1033 1018-1013 1018-1013 1018-1013 1018-1013 1018-1013 1018-1013 1018-1013 1008-1009 | Totals |
| | | Specific gravity—concentration test | |

Correlation table Addis Ratio (per cent of normal) and maximum volume (cubic centimeters/hour/172 sg m) TABLE 5

| Totals | | 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 | 524 |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------|---|--------|
| | 115- 119 9 | | 2 |
| | 110- 114 9 | ਸਜਸ ਜ ਜ | 2 |
| | 105- 109 9 | H H H H H H H H H | 11 |
| | 100- | H H W H O H | 15 |
| | 95- 99 9 | m 0400 00440 | 17 |
| | 90- | 0 HHWW0000HWW | 31 |
| | 85- 89 9 | <i>∾∾∾∾∞∞∞</i> | 36 |
| | 80- 84 9 | H 11 H 4000000 H H H H | 34 |
| mal | 75- 79 9 | ろまななのちろろちよこのこま し | 45 |
| Addıs Ratio—per cent of normal | 70- 74 9 | H 200000114 2 H | 23 |
| cent | 669 | н симимомиси 4 с | 37 |
| Det | 64 9 | п пни ффи офф и | 33 |
| atio | 55- 59 9 | 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 1 | 45 |
| ldıs R | 50- 54 9 | 44440044440404 | 53 |
| Ad | 45- 49 9 | 10 HWWWNGHHH 0 | 26 |
| | 44 9 | HD 215 3H | 17 |
| | 35- 39 9 | 1 4100010 | 17 |
| | 34 9 | 21 ま 32 24 4 5 5 7 4 1 1 1 1 | 34 |
| | 25- | 4 ひ 4 ひ 6 1 | 22 |
| | 20- | 1777 3717 | 6 |
| | - 15- 9 19 9 | 1233 | = |
| | 54 | H 646444 | 14 |
| | 5- | 44446 | |
| | 49 | 2 1 | |
| | | 960-999 920-959 880-919 840-879 800-839 760-799 720-759 680-719 640-679 600-639 550-599 550-599 440-479 440-479 400-439 320-359 240-279 240-279 240-279 240-279 260-339 160-199 120-159 80-119 | Totals |
| | Малтипт volume—cc /hour | | |

Correlation table Addis Ratio (per cent of normal) and volume quotient

| Totals | | 11 11 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 1 | 524 |
|--------------------------------|-------------|--|--------|
| | 119 9 | 1 1 | 7 |
| | ₹ 1 2 | 1 22 1 | 20 |
| | 500 | - 2 | = |
| | 95 | # 0 HHHMHHH0H | 15 |
| | 78 | H H 40H8 00H | 17 |
| | 82 | | 31 |
| | 89 9 | च च चक्चलक्षणऽऽ | 36 |
| | 849 | 1 | 34 |
| nal | 75. | 41 111140E00EE004 | 45 |
| иоп ј | 70- | 400 0E04 | 23 |
| Addis Ratio—per cent of normal | -89 | - 2320000000 | 37 |
| jet Ag | 92 | 1 11 255 4584C | 33 |
| ig d | 55.9 | 9 11100 0000con | 45 |
| E R | 54.5 | 1 2 2014468 | 29 |
| ¥ | 194 | 11 100000461 | 26 |
| ĬĮ. | 104 | - 0-0-000-0 | 17 |
| 1 | 35- | 4 01 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 | 17 |
| } | 34.9 | 1 1288014 | 34 |
| $\ $ | 25- | 1 24001 | 22 |
| | 127 | -44 | 6 |
| } | 15- | 0.40 | = |
| 1 | 101 | 1 m m p 4 | 14 |
| } | 7.0 | 777 | ∞ |
| | 95 | m | 8 |
| | | 69-71 9 66-68 9 63-65 9 63-65 9 63-65 9 54-56 9 54-56 9 54-44 9 36-44 9 36-44 9 36-38 | Totals |
| | | Volume quotient | |



PLACE A STRAIGHT-EDGE HORIZONTALLY AT THE GIVEN READING
ON THE PROPER SCALE — THE PREDICTED ADDIS RATIO IS FOUND
LATERALLY

FIG 1 LINE CHART FOR PREDICTING ADDIS RATIO FROM MINIMUM VOLUME (Cc/Hr/172 Sq M), MAXIMUM VOLUME (Cc/Hr/172 Sq M), SPECIFIC GRAVITY OF CONCENTRATION TEST, VOLUME QUOTIENT, AND BLOOD UREA (Mgm/100 Cc) (BLOOD UREA LINE CALCULATED FROM DATA OF MACKAY AND MACKAY (3))

specific gravity These results mean roughly that the odds are 2 to 1 in favor of a prediction being within \pm 30 per cent ³ of the true value when the minimum volume is used, and within \pm 20 per cent when any of the other variables are used to estimate renal mass

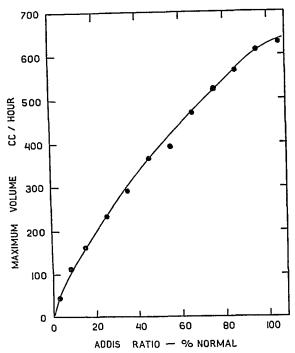


Fig 2 The Regression Line of Maximum Volume (Cubic Centimeters /Hour/1 72 Sq. M.) on the Addis Ratio (Per Cent of Normal)

Regression lines of the studied variables on the Addis Ratio The regression line of the maximum rate of urine excretion on the Ratio is shown in Figure 2. The means fall quite smoothly along a parabola, which when extended meets the origin. The maximum rate begins to decrease almost as soon as kidney tissue becomes less than normal in amount the slight lag in response may be an artefact due to the small

³ In per cent of the normal, not of the actual Ratio in any specific instance

number of observations at 105 per cent of normal, or may mean that the stimulus is insufficient to provoke a maximal renal response

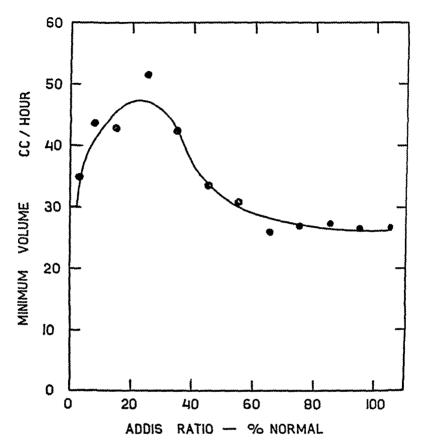


Fig 3 The Regression Line of Minimum Volume (Cubic Centimeters /Hour/1 72 Sq M) on the Addis Ratio (Per Cent of Normal)

The behavior of the minimum rate of excretion of urine is shown in Figure 3. The curve is not so smooth, and is of a more unusual shape. The capacity of the kidney to produce urine at a slow rate is not involved until about 40 per cent of renal tissue is removed, a polyuria then follows, reaches its height when only 25 per cent of tissue remains, and declines rapidly toward anuria as the mass of kidney disappears.

The regression line of specific gravity of the "concentration test" on the Ratio is given in Figure 4. As kidney substance is removed, the kidney is able to produce urine of high specific gravity until about 20 per cent of the tissue is gone, the urine's specific gravity then rapidly decreases at a rate which does not slacken until only 30 per cent of the original kidney weight remains

The volume quotient may be looked upon as a measure of the adaptability of the kidney to diametrically opposite stimuli (to excrete urine at a "maximum" and at a "minimum" rate) Figure 5 shows that this

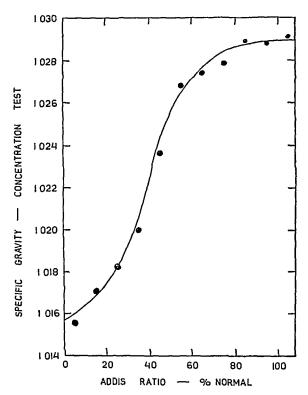


FIG 4 THE REGRESSION LINE OF THE SPECIFIC GRAVITY OF THE CONCEN TRATION TEST ON THE ADDIS RATIO (PER CENT OF NORMAL)

adaptability is affected almost as soon as tissue is removed and decreases in a straight line until the kidney is able to excrete urine at only one rate regardless of the stimulus

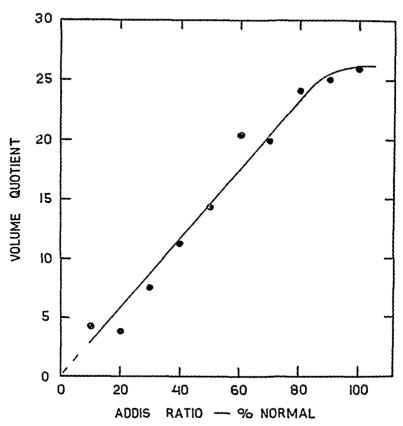


Fig 5 The Regression Line of the Volume Quotient on the Addis Ratio (Per Cent of Normal)

The data for the four related regression lines are given in Tables 7 to 10

TABLE 7

Regression line of Addis Raiso (per cent of normal) on maximum volume (cubic centimeters/hour/172 sq m)

| Maximum | Addis | Number of |
|---------|-------|--------------|
| volume | Ratio | observations |
| 40 | 23 5 | 15 |
| 120 | 31 2 | 34 |
| 200 | 39 9 | 48 |
| 280 | 47 1 | 47 |
| 360 | 57 0 | 75 |
| 440 | 69 7 | 84 |
| 520 | 74 4 | 74 |
| 600 | 73 9 | 64 |
| 680 | 84 8 | 41 |
| 760 | 88 5 | 42 |
| | | |
| | | 524 |

TABLE 8

Regression line of Addis Ralio (per cent of normal) on minimum volume (cubic centimeters/hour/172 sq m)

| Minimum volume | Addis Ratio | Number of observations |
|-------------------|----------------|------------------------|
| 5 | 53 5 | 10 |
| 15 | 72 7 | 129 |
| 25 | 69 1 | 161 |
| 35 | 57 8 | 101 |
| 45 | 50 3 | 48 |
| 55 | 53 6 | 35 |
| 65 | 41 7 | 20 |
| 75 | 42 0 | 12 |
| 85 | | 0 |
| 95 | 38 5 | 5 |
| 105 | | 0 |
| 115 | 22 5 | 1 |
| 125 | | 0 |
| 135 | 27 5 | 1 |
| 145 | 12 5 | 1 |
| | | |
| | | 524 |
| | | |

TABLE 9

Regression line of Addis Ratio (per cent of normal) on specific gravity of the concentration test

| Specific | Addis | Number of |
|----------|-------|--------------|
| gravity | Ratio | observations |
| 1 0055 | 27 5 | 1 |
| 1 0095 | 50 8 | 3 |
| 1 0135 | 32 1 | 48 |
| 1 0175 | 40 6 | 60 |
| 1 0215 | 57 3 | 81 |
| 1 0255 | 64 4 | 108 |
| 1 0295 | 73 0 | 113 |
| 1 0335 | 79 9 | 77 |
| 1 0375 | 81 6 | 23 |
| 1 0415 | 63 8 | 4 |
| 1 0455 | 55 0 | Ž |
| | | |
| | | 520 |

TABLE 10

Regression line of Addis Ralio (per cent of normal) on valume qualient

| | Transa remito (bei cent al mai untit) al | i voiums quoitens |
|--------------------|--|------------------------|
| Volume quotient | Addls Ratio | Number of observations |
| 3 | 29 7 | 88 |
| 9 | 52 0 | 109 |
| 15 | 69 5 | 99 |
| 21 | 72 9 | 82 |
| 27 | 75 8 | 67 |
| 33 | 80 0 | 37 |
| 39 | 82 0 | 19 |
| 45 | 87 5 | 9 |
| 51 57 | 80 0 | 6 5 |
| 63 | 73 5 | 5 |
| 69 | an - | 0 |
| U.S | 87 5 | 2 |
| | | _ |
| | | 524 |

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A statistical analysis was attempted in correlating the Addis Ratio (as a measure of the amount of functioning renal tissue) with the rates of excretion of urine under specified conditions designed to induce minimum and maximum rates of excretion

Tests of function are discussed from the view-point of the shape of their regressions with the amount of functioning tissue which they are designed to measure The shape of the regression is at least as important as the correlation in determining the clinical value of the test

The odds are 2 to 1 that the Ratio may be predicted within a range of \pm 20 per cent by means of urine excretion rates

The behavior of the rates of excretion of urine with different amounts of kidney tissue as measured by the Ratio is described No explanation for the shape of the curves is given

The author desires to thank Dr Thomas Addis for the kind permission with which his records were used, and for invaluable assistance in the preparation of this paper

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SALT AND WATER IN THE TREATMENT OF

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(Received for publication June 30 1933)

In a previous paper (1) the nature and causes of the bicarbonate deficit and other serum electrolyte changes in diabetic acidosis were discussed from a theoretical standpoint, and disordered electrolyte patterns actually observed were analyzed in the light of this theoretical discussion It was pointed out that displacement of bicarbonate from combinations with base by ketone acids is a process which can be reversed completely with the contribution from outside sources of nothing except the ability Base in combination with ketone acids may be to burn carbohydrate considered potential bicarbonate On the other hand, the loss of base with ketone acids in the urine introduces an irreversible process, because base for the replacement of that sacrificed must come from external Such base deficiences may become quite extreme, but ordinarily they are small compared with the deficiences of base combined with The actual extent of the body chloride losses is hardly evident from the concentrations of this ion found in the serum, because it is masked by contractions of the body fluids Such a contraction brought about by loss of water in excess of dissolved salts will increase the concentration of chloride more than it will that of bicarbonate, because the body fluids contain more chloride than bicarbonate. In observed cases, the actual reduction of chloride concentration in the serum usually exceeded that of bicarbonate plus undetermined acids (which for convenience was called S and represents the actual plus potential bicarbonate If loss of body fluids is taken into consideration it is mentioned above) obvious that the actual loss of chloride must far exceed that indicated by the reduction in concentration The deficiency of base, of course, exceeds that of either chloride or S, because it represents the sum of the two base In some instances, with S well preserved, the reduction of chloride concentration exceeds that of base This has been interpreted as evidence that the chloride ion, instead of the bicarbonate ion, has yielded base for the neutralization of ketones, a reaction which would seem to be neither useful nor chemically possible. It was pointed out that if equal amounts of base and chloride were excreted and the body fluids were at the same time diminished by a disproportionately large elimination of water, the reduction in concentration of chloride would exceed that of base, because contraction of fluid volume would increase base concentration more than chloride. It was suggested that this is a more likely explanation of excessive chloride deficits than the previous theory that the chloride ion is excreted with ammonia to provide base for the neutralization of ketones.

The present paper is intended to analyze the clinical and therapeutic implications of these theories in the light of observations made in a series of patients during recovery from diabetic acidosis. The clinical material consists of twenty-five patients on whom studies of blood sugar together with total acid-base equilibrium of the serum were made at frequent intervals by the methods usually employed in this department (2). In certain instances urine was analyzed for total base or chloride or both. The intakes of fluid, sodium, chloride and glucose were usually measured. Records of output are seldom so complete, because urine specimens and vomitus were frequently lost. Of these twenty-five patients, thirteen are discussed below. The remaining cases so closely resembled those reported that the inclusion of additional data does not seem warranted.

In the discussion that follows it is assumed that insulin and carbohydrate were given to all cases with the intention, at least, of reestablishing glucose combustion and thereby eliminating ketosis as the ketone acids will be released to form bicarbonate. There can be no difference of opinion concerning the objective of therapy in this respect Differences in the means of securing this objective will be discussed in The chief concern of the present study is the nature another connection and quantity of fluids and salts which it is advisable to give For the most part treatment actually employed has been the administration of large amounts of sodium chloride and fluids together with carbohydrate When patients have been able to take these materials by mouth the sodium chloride has been given chiefly in the form of non-nutritive broth containing 1 per cent of this salt, the carbohydrates as sweetened drinks containing about 10 per cent of sugar
In addition, liberal amounts of water have been permitted When oral feeding was impossible 0 9 per cent sodium chloride and 5 per cent glucose solutions have been given subcutaneously or intravenously, and occasionally stronger glucose solutions intravenously The salt solution is intended to restore the volume of the body fluids and to remedy salt depletion Glucose solution serves two purposes 1 It provides carbohydrate for combustion and replenishment of glycogen stores 2 It offers a medium for the parenteral administration of water without salt Normal salt solution provides sodium in concentration approximately equivalent to that of total base in body fluids In respiration and insensible perspiration there is a continuous wastage of fluid without any appreciable quantity of salt Unless the kidneys, then, excrete base in concentration exceeding that of

body fluids, administration of normal saline alone would raise base in the body fluids to an abnormally high level. To obviate this difficulty, in addition to the saline, enough water should be given to provide for losses by extrarenal channels. Glucose solutions answer this purpose because the glucose can be oxidized, leaving only the water.

The analysis of the data presented is complex not only because of the large number of variables with which it is necessary to deal, but also because the serum analyses are concerned with concentrations of sub stances and give no direct information as to total amounts of fluids and solutes in the body. In a preceding article the average compositions of body fluids in normal subjects and patients with diabetic acidosis were compared (1) In Figure 1, diagrams A and B represent schematically

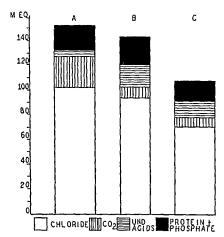
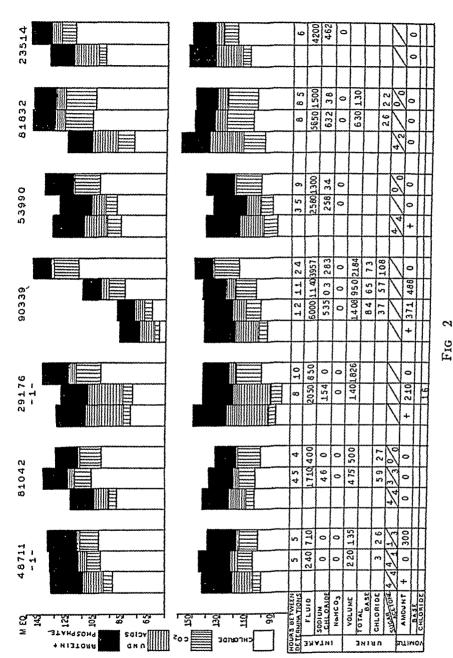


FIG 1 DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE CHIEF ELECTROLYTE AND WATER CHANGES THAT OCCUR IN DIABETIC ACIDOSIS

The width of columns B and C represents roughly the total body fluid volume compared to the normal A

the two conditions As far as concentrations are concerned they are quite realistic because all values are derived from observed data. The 25 per cent reduction of body fluid in B represents little more than a guess, because the actual extent of fluid losses during the development of diabetic acidosis has not been established. Diagram C represents the electrolyte concentrations of B reduced by dilution to the original fluid volume found in A. Thus C represents the actual salt losses found in diabetic acidosis. It emphasizes the necessity of having some measure



ELECTROLYTE CHANGES DURING RECOVERY FROM DIABETIC ACIDOSIS FIGS 2 AND 3

height of the acid column Volumes are expressed in cc, electrolytes in m Eq Sugar and acetone in the The figures 1 to 4 indicate roughly the intensity of the reactions The specimens of urine and vomitus The upper diagrams rep-The specimens Total base is not shown but equals the total urine were determined by Benedict's qualitative method and the nitroprusside reaction respectively reported in the first column in each case were produced before treatment was started The lower diagrams represent the concentrations of electrolytes determined reported in other columns were collected during the periods indicated resent these data recalculated as described in the text

of dehydration in order that electrolyte concentrations determined after various forms of therapy may be adequately compared with the initial concentration In a previous paper (3) the relation of the serum proteins to hemoconcentration has been discussed It was pointed out that, except in the presence of shock, the fall of serum proteins from their initially high values probably is associated with, even if it is not exactly proportional to, restitution of body fluid In the absence of a better and more exact method, the drop in the level of the serum proteins has been used in the succeeding discussion as one measure of body fluid Knowing the fluid and salt balances of an individual during a period of time, the changes that occur in the serum electrolyte concentrations afford another measure of body fluid change, if isotonicity of all the body fluids be assumed It is only by correlating concentrations of electrolytes with changes in body fluid volume that the extent of the original depletion of the salts and their replacement during recovery become apparent

The analytical data obtained in thirteen of the cases investigated are presented in Figures 2 and 3 The bottom row of diagrams in these figures represents the serum electrolyte concentrations found base is not shown, but equals the total height of the acid column in each case The top row of diagrams presents the data recalculated to take into account water change This was accomplished by using the changing serum protein concentrations as an index For example, in Case 60404, the initial serum protein concentration was 189 m Eq and the final, 139 m Eq Assuming that no protein was lost or gained, the serum volume must have increased 35 9 per cent. All the electrolyte concentrations found at the time of the first determination have been reduced 35 9 per cent in order to eliminate changes in concentration due to differences in the amount of water present. Thus the initial chloride concentration of 98 2 m Eq becomes 69 3 m Eq Each determination has been compared to the final one in order that the approximate amounts of each ion added could be ascertained. The amount of salt in the intake and in the urine and vomitus are expressed in milliequivalents was given in the form of sodium chloride, so that equal amounts of sodium and chloride were given

In analyzing the data, not only must the effect of changing body water content on the concentration of the electrolytes be evaluated, but also the results of vomiting and nausea must be ascertained. Unfortunately, vomiting, or at least nausea, is one of the most frequent events during the course of diabetic acidosis. Individuals who are vomiting are obviously losing from the body varying amounts of salt and fluid. They have in the intestinal tract a large volume of fluid which, although isotonic with the body fluids in general, may be of entirely different composition in regard to particular ions. Fluid placed in the gastro-in-

testinal tract eventually becomes isotonic. This is true not only in individuals who are actually vomiting but also in those who are nauseated When, during recovery, the gastro intestinal symptoms diminish, this fluid is reabsorbed into the mass of body water. These facts explain otherwise incomprehensible alterations in salt concentrations and fluid balances, observed during recovery, which are not related to the amount of salt and fluid immediately taken into the body or excreted Case 29176-1 furnishes a qualitative example of these changes In the first eight hours the patient received 2050 cc of fluid with 154 m Eq of sodium chloride. Throughout this time he was vomiting or was nauseated The water content of the blood was apparently maintained, but base and chloride concentrations diminished. S remained constant. In the next 10 hours his nausea disappeared Although he received only 850 cc of fluid with no salt during this period and passed 1820 cc of urine, there was about a 10 per cent blood dilution with a marked rise of serum chloride The concentration of base in the serum remained the same. but as the recalculated diagram shows, the total amount of base actually increased The most reasonable explanation of these changes seems to be that fluid was first poured out into the alimentary canal, and then reabsorbed This subject forms a part of a general discussion of water balance to be reported by Lavietes, Kydd and Peters (4)

In order to test the effect of varying therapy the individuals have been divided into four groups 1. The patients who were treated with insulin and carbohydrate alone 2. The patients who were given fluids in addition 3. The patients who received varying amounts of salt in addition to the therapy used in 1 and 2. 4. The patients who received bicarbonate as well as salt, fluid, carbohydrate and insulin. It has already been stated that the proportions of insulin and carbohydrate used will not be discussed in this paper.

1 Treatment without salt and fluids

Case 48711–1 was given enough fluid (as carbohydrate drinks) barely to equal the amount of urine that was formed. She received no salt Initially she had a rather high undetermined acid in the serum, presumably mostly ketones, while S was only moderately reduced. With this form of therapy the body fluids evidently became somewhat more contracted, as the total base and chloride rose slightly in the first five hours. The ketones rapidly diminished, but S also decreased. Therefore, although its excretion was not measured, it can be inferred that base was excreted. CO₂ rises because of loss of fluid and also because of the base liberated from ketones and not excreted. During the next five hours the patient received slightly more fluid, but still an insufficient amount. S is maintained, the undetermined acid fraction is still further reduced and CO₂ augmented by an equal amount. In brief, dehydration

is not overcome and the increase of CO₂ that is observed is due to replacement of the ketones that have been burned and to fluid depletion. The excretion of chloride is very small, 3 m Eq. Although base excretion was not quantitatively determined, the ketones in the urine, evidenced by a heavy nitroprusside reaction, probably carried base with them. Depletion of electrolytes must have continued throughout the period of study in this individual, but its effects on the serum were masked by the simultaneous loss of fluid. The increase of bicarbonate consequently gives a speciously favorable impression of the efficacy of a therapeutic course which was obviously unsatisfactory if its aim was the restoration of a normal internal environment.

2 Treatment with fluids alone (Cases 81042, 29176-1)

There are no cases that received fluids entirely without salt The cases listed in this group received less salt than they excreted Case 81042 was given 2120 cc of fluid and only 46 m Eq of chloride during a period of eighty-two hours in which she excreted 975 cc of urine containing 86 m Eq of chloride No figures for the excretion of base are available The serum proteins drop from 8 09 per cent to 6 92 per cent, evidencing adequate hemodilution The CO₂ concentration rises because of displacement of ketones Total base and chloride fall, not only because dilution takes place, but because chloride at least was lost in the urine Base falls farther than chloride because, since its concentration is higher in the serum, it is more affected by dilution. This phenomenon is discussed in detail elsewhere This therapy causes dilution of the electro-Any augmentation of CO₂ which occurs is referable only to the base liberated by burning ketones Again, consideration of bicarbonate alone gives an erroneous impression of the results of therapy, and especially of its effects on base

3 Treatment with varying amounts of salt and fluid (Cases 90339, 53990, 81832, 23514, 60404, 71954-2)

This has been the accepted mode of treatment and most of the cases reported fall within this group. The diagrams of individuals exhibit responses of great variability because of differences in initial electrolyte and fluid depletion, the proportions and amounts of salt and fluid given, the amount of vomiting and nausea and the quantities of fluid and salt excreted.

Case 90339 had in the serum an initial chloride concentration of 97 m Eq with a total base of 142 8 m Eq During the first twenty-two and three-quarter hours she received (4792 cc) more fluid than she excreted. Her salt intake was 548 3 m Eq of sodium, 28 8 m Eq of potassium and 535 2 m Eq of chloride. She excreted 90 7 m Eq of sodium, 51 6 m Eq of potassium and 93 7 m Eq of chloride. With this

therapy the serum chloride concentration rose to 106 m Eq Serum CO₂ rose because bicarbonate replaced the ketones that were burned and S also increased slightly. This is not easily apparent from the concentrations observed, but becomes so when the extent of original fluid loss, which is represented in the diagram, is considered. During the ensuing twenty four hours she received 1873 cc of fluid more than she excreted, together with 286 m Eq of sodium and 283 m Eq of chloride, of which she excreted 52 and 107 8 m Eq respectively. At the end of this time her chloride had risen to 118 m Eq notwithstanding further dilution. Base was now normal, 150 2 m Eq. CO₂, however, had only risen 3 m Eq and was still very low, 17 8 m Eq. Despite the distorted electrolyte pattern observed at the end of the study, the patient, aside from exhaustion, had felt entirely well for more than twenty four hours.

Case 53990 on admission was vomiting profusely and was markedly dehydrated. Vomiting and nausea ceased soon after therapy was instituted. During the first three and one half hours he received 2580 cc of fluid with 258 m Eq. of sodium chloride. Although the ketones diminished, CO₂ fell, presumably because of the continued heavy excretion of the former together with a certain amount of base. In the recalculated diagram it is observed that S fell 8 m Eq., whereas total base fell 4.8 m Eq. and chloride rose 3.4 m Eq. The amount of sodium chloride added to the serum was apparently insufficient to replace the base and ketones lost. During the next nine hours very little sodium chloride was given, 34 m Eq. Despite slight retention of fluid, chloride and total base rose rapidly in a parallel fashion. CO₂ was increased by further elimination of ketones. Because of the low intake during this period these changes can be interpreted only as the result of absorption of fluid from the gastro intestinal tract.

Case 81832 was also given large amounts of salt and fluid. In this case salt depletion was not extreme The effect of the treatment was to cause dilution of the serum with a marked increase of base and chloride If the observed changes in the electrolytes in this case are recalculated with consideration of the dilution indicated by the diminishing serum proteins, it is found that equal amounts of sodium and chloride have been The increase in CO2 has been almost entirely at the expense of ketones In Case 71954-2 the initial serum chloride is high, but base is very low, as are the undetermined acids. In the course of thirteen and one quarter hours he received 4010 cc of fluid more than he excreted and retained 505 m Eq of chloride The large amount of fluid given caused extreme dilution of the serum Base slowly rises Chloride, after an initial rise, returns almost to its original concentration. Unfortunately, no base excretion figures are available, but, as S slowly increases, chloride must have been excreted in equal or greater amounts than base Because chloride concentration in serum is greatly less than base an excretion of

equal amounts of each will cause a relative increase in serum base con-

The administration of both sodium chloride and water permits restoration of base and body fluids. Hyperchloremia often results and bicarbonate may remain low. However, these abnormalities of the electrolyte pattern do not seem to have any deleterious effects as far as one can judge from objective and subjective clinical signs.

4 Treatment with fluid, sodium chloride and sodium bicarbonate (Cases 29176-2, 71954-3, 85138, 29176-3)

Sodium bicarbonate was given to four cases, but no conclusive results were obtained Case 29176 during the first four hours received 119 m Eq of sodium bicarbonate, 285 m Eq of sodium chloride and 2650 cc of fluid Serum base rose from 141 to 151 m Eq, chloride from 93 2 to 95 6 m Eq $\,$ S rose from 23 8 to 36 3 m Eq , but CO₂ rose only from 6.7 to 120 m Eq., indicating a very considerable increase in the undetermined During the next four hours no more bicarbonate was given Further dilution took place Base concentration fell, as did S, but the undetermined acids were greatly reduced, so that CO2 rose concentration rose to normal, 101 8 m Eq These changes become more comprehensible in the upper figures, where body fluid changes are taken into consideration It is then apparent that during the first four hours CO2 increases because of an accession of total base. During the second four hours CO2 replaces the ketones and total base and chloride are added in about equal quantities The reason for the increase in ketone acids after bicarbonate administration is obscure. It is known that bicarbonate will increase the excretion of ketones and in this case qualitative ketones persisted in the urine for a longer period than was expected It is conceivable that the ketones came from the cells in response to the addition of base to the extracellular fluids

In Case 71954–3, 107 m Eq of sodium bicarbonate, 247 m Eq of sodium chloride and 3800 cc of fluid were given in eight hours. He developed a hyperchloremia and the concentration of CO₂ rose only by virtue of the base liberated by oxidation of ketones. This patient was vomiting on admission and nausea continued for more than three hours. That he then absorbed from his stomach considerable free hydrochloric acid, part of which had been neutralized by the small amount of bicarbonate given, would provide a plausible explanation of the data. In Case 29176–3 much the same phenomena occur. In the last period of four hours 71 m Eq. of sodium bicarbonate without any chloride were given. During this four hours chloride and base rose. The concentration of CO₂ increased from 10.8 to 20.5 m Eq., but the concentration of undetermined acids fell from 20.7 to 6.6 m Eq., so that S actually diminished. The sodium bicarbonate given was more than neutralized

by the contents of the gastro intestinal tract while the individual was nauseated. The vomitus secured for analysis contained 33 6 m Eq of total base and 40 4 m Eq of chloride. Case 85138, in four hours, received 1810 cc of fluid, 155 m Eq of sodium chloride and 95 m Eq of sodium bicarbonate. S remained constant. The recalculated diagram shows that equivalent amounts of total base and chloride were added to the serum. Undoubtedly, sodium bicarbonate was not given in sufficiently large amounts to produce a demonstrable specific effect upon serum bicarbonate.

DISCUSSION

The cases are complicated by differences in initial salt and water depletion, the occurrence of vomiting or nausea, and variation in renal function, as well as by the type of therapy used. However, certain inferences can be drawn from analysis of the data. Treatment with carbohydrate and insulin alone is unsatisfactory. It does not supply the elements that have been wasted by the body. Dissipation of saltless water by means of insensible perspiration and of salt and water through renal activity and vomiting continue. These processes lead to a concentration of all the solutes in the interstitial fluids. If the initial loss of salt is small, the concentrations of serum electrolytes may appear surprisingly normal unless the degree of body fluid loss is considered. Treatment with fluid without salt is also unsatisfactory. Dilution occurs, making the salt depletion even more apparent. In either instance, changes in the concentration of CO₂ do not indicate any essential improvement in the patient's condition.

The CO may rise further when no fluid is given because the body fluids become more concentrated. Nevertheless, administration of fluid at least has the advantage of combating, to some extent, dehydration. In both cases increases of CO_2 are derived only from base liberated by combustion of ketones, while the actual base content of the body must suffer loss through urine and vonitus.

Since sodium, the major basic ion of intestinal fluids, cannot enter cells, the rising osmolar concentration of extracellular fluids that occurs when no salt and no fluid is given, must force the cells to give up water Atchley, Loeb, Richards, Benedict and Driscoll (5) showed that during development of the dehydration of diabetic acidosis intracellular as well as extracellular fluid is lost, so that further concentration is even more undesirable. If fluid without salt be given, the osmotic concentration of the extracellular fluids would diminish, forcing the cells to imbibe water or perhaps to lose base. Carried far enough this would lead to complete disruption of the internal environment

The importance of replacing the salt and fluid lost from the body has already been discussed in a previous article (3) in relation to shock and to the continuance of the stupor and other clinical symptoms

The rapid

recovery of Case 82529, without any change in the concentration of serum bicarbonate, under the influence of parenteral administration of normal sodium chloride solution, was cited

Three cases have been cited in which salt and fluid in varying amounts produced electrolyte patterns that were distorted and yet were more in keeping with a normal internal environment than most of the patterns resulting from either of the other forms of therapy discussed chloremia with a continuously low CO2 concentration is frequently observed This is shown strikingly in Case 90339 After forty-seven hours the serum of the patient had a chloride concentration of 118 m Eq. and a CO2 concentration of only 17 8 m Eq The concentration of her serum base was, however, normal, 150 6 m Eq. That this distortion is caused by a dilution of the serum with sodium chloride solution has already been pointed out. In diarrhea of infants, in which base is lost in excess of chloride, Hartmann (6) has claimed that treatment with sodium chloride and water alone is unsatisfactory because it gives rise to hyperchloremia and still further depresses bicarbonate However, the depression of bicarbonate caused by sodium chloride is not due to displacement of one acid by the other, but to dilution of the bicarbonate by Hoag and Marples (7) have further pointed out that hyperchloremia occurs only when the amounts of chloride solution given are too small to ensure an adequate flow of urine The effect of renal activity is shown by Case 71954-3 During the first eight hours the serum chloride concentration rose from 98 5 to 106 6 m Eq , although the base concentration remained constant at 140 m Eq. During this period the excretion of total base, 22 2 m Eq , almost equalled the excretion of chloride, 24 9 m Eq. Although his CO2 concentration at this time was only 143 m Eq the patient was entirely asymptomatic next sixteen hours 1841 m Eq. of chloride were excreted with only 311 Unfortunately the electrolyte concentrations were not m Eq of base determined at the end of this time

The presence of an extremely small chloride excretion at the time when hyperchloremia exists in the serum is also illustrated by Case 60404 Serum chloride concentration rose from 95 2 to 105 m Eq. in five hours During this period 260 m Eq. of chloride were administered but only 8 m Eq. were found in 556 cc. of urine. Extraordinary serum chloride concentrations are seen after clinical recovery. In Case 23514 the final chloride concentration was 120 7 m Eq. Hartmann and Smyth (8) found that in pyloric obstruction, when chloride became depleted, patients, in spite of the retention of abnormally large amounts of CO₂, excreted acid urine and thus maintained a normal concentration of base in the body fluids. In recovery from diabetic acidosis, under administration of sodium chloride, the reverse obtains. Until a normal base concentration is restored, the excretion of chloride remains low, even when serum chloride has been driven to an exceedingly high level.

Despite the low CO2 concentration and the existence of hyperchloremia, the patients are entirely free of symptoms, provided that fluid and base requirements have been satisfied. In no case has the actual minute volume of respiration been determined, but in all cases which have progressed to this point, all visible hyperpnea has dis appeared, although the bicarbonate concentration may be still as low as that observed in patients who, during the development of acidosis, suffered from extreme air hunger The maintenance of a low alveolar CO2 tension with constant CO2 production must, undoubtedly, necessitate increased breathing However, even a 50 per cent reduction of CO2 tension, once established, requires only 100 per cent overventilation, a degree of hyperventilation that is hardly noticeable. Furthermore, during recovery the CO2 tension is rising. It would seem that the restitution of volume and ionic concentration of the body fluids is of prime importance, whereas, the replacement of individual anions to recreate the normal pattern is of secondary importance This rearrangement may not occur until long after the disappearance of all untoward symptoms and reactions Field (9) and others have asserted that the bicarbonate deficit itself inhibits glucose utilization and have advanced this as a reason for administration of bicarbonate. In physiologic or clinical studies no basis for such an assertion is to be found. It has been demonstrated that administration of acidifying salts does not impair oxidation of sugar (10) In fact, Haldane (11) and others claim that it has an accelerating action on such oxidations. In other diseases with comparable acidosis, for example, nephritis, carbohydrate combustion seems not to be affected Furthermore, it has been observed in the present series that utilization of sugar during recovery from diabetic acidosis may advance to the appearance of hypoglycemia while bicarbonate is still greatly depleted In patient 79156 the blood sugar fell in successive observations from 427 to 277 to 117 mgm per cent with corresponding bicarbonate values of 32, 64 and 97 m Eq During this period of 65 hours he received more than 80 grams of sugar. There can be no doubt that he was burning carbohydrate rapidly at the time of the second and third blood examinations, although the bicarbonate was still at levels usually associated with coma

Hartmann and Darrow (12) have presented a more logical argument for bicarbonate administration. It is evident from the serum electrolyte patterns at the height of acidosis that the concentration of S is, in many cases, diminished. The actual quantity of S must, of course, be even more depleted by loss of body fluids. That hyperchloremia develops when sodium chloride solution is given in the attempt to replace this deficit has already been demonstrated. In order, then, to restore the normal electrolyte pattern as speedily as possible, administration of bicarbonate would seem advisable. However, dilution of the extra-

cellular fluids with sodium bicarbonate solution alone would cause greater distortion of the pattern than would dilution with sodium chloride, because of the difference in concentration of chloride and bicarbonate found in normal serum. Hence, a combination of the two salts should be given. It has already been stated that the amounts of sodium bicarbonate that were given to patients in this series were too small to permit any adequate deductions.

To be effective, large amounts of this salt would have to be given Administering the salt by mouth is usually impossible because of the frequent occurrence of nausea and vomiting This necessitates discontinuing all oral feeding and resorting entirely to parenteral administration of fluid, carbohydrate, and salts The time required to prepare a solution of sodium bicarbonate for intravenous use precludes its use until the patient should be well on the way towards recovery, if large amounts of fluid and sodium chloride are given Cunningham and Darrow (13) have proposed a solution made by mixing suitable proportions of sodium bicarbonate and hydrochloric acid This solution, however, contains but 30 m Eq of sodium bicarbonate per liter, an amount too small to evoke an adequate effect Hartmann and Senn (14) have proposed using normal sodium lactate solution in amounts varied according to the estimated needs of the individual This solution provides a means of giving an adequate amount of base to combine eventually with CO2 However, the solution also is not immediately available because it must be given intravenously and, therefore, cannot be made in advance if nonspecific reactions are to be avoided

Although it may be desirable to give sodium bicarbonate or a substitute, this salt will not furnish all the requirements of the depleted body fluids. Chloride has been lost in large amounts. The administration of large amounts of sodium chloride as early in the course of treatment as possible is quite essential in accelerating recovery and should not be delayed until a suitable bicarbonate solution can be prepared

SUMMARY

The effect, on the recovery from diabetic acidosis, of administering varying amounts of fluid, sodium chloride, and sodium bicarbonate, has been discussed. Treatment with carbohydrate and insulin alone, or with the addition of water only is unsatisfactory. The giving of sodium chloride leads to rapid recovery, even though hyperchloremia develop. The individual appears to retain chloride in high concentration until the base concentration approaches normal. Chloride is then excreted in excess of base. Clinical improvement parallels the restoration of body fluid and total ionic concentrations rather than the replacement of individual ions.

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| | Day after onset | Plasma | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------|-----------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------|---------------|------------------------------------|
| Patient | | Total pro tein | Albu- min | Total glob ulin | Fi brin- ogen | Eu- glob ulin | Pseudo- globu lin I | Pseudo- globu- lin II | Albumin Globulin ratio | Vis cosity | Blood sedimen tation time |
| | | grams per 100 cc | grams per 100 cc | grams per 100 cc | grams per 100 cc | grams per 100 cc | grams per 100 cc | grams per 100 cc | | | minutes |
| Case I P G | 2 6 14 36 | 7 26 6 41 6 04 6 68 | 3 61 3 49 3 35 4 13 | 3 65 2 92 2 69 2 55 | 0 79 1 06 0 79 0 49 | 0 94 0 20 0 19 0 47 | 1 17 1 06 0 98 0 91 | 0 75 0 59 0 73 0 69 | 0 99 1 19 1 24 1 61 | 19 15 | 115 30 97 180+ |
| Case III A K | 5 30 | 5 61 6 76 | 2 84 3 07 | 2 77 3 69 | 0 27 0 53 | 0 33 0 38 | 0 99 1 95 | 1 20 0 84 | 1 03 0 81 | 2 1 1 6 | 18 155 |
| Case IV F F | 11 64 | 5 99 6 56 | 2 18 3 73 | 3 81 2 83 | 0 74 0 61 | 0 66 0 52 | 1 31 1 13 | 1 10 0 59 | 0 57 1 31 | 1 8 1 6 | 7 180+ |
| Case VI J B | 7 48 | 6 55 6 35 | 3 14 3 12 | 3 41 3 23 | 0 59 0 31 | 0 75 0 38 | 1 30 1 98 | 0 77 0 57 | 0 91 0 96 | 2 0 1 5 | 16 180+ |
| Normal amounts | | 6 67 | 4 07 | 2 59 | 0 29 | 0 68 | 0 94 | 0 68 | 1 57 | 1 7 | 180+ |

TABLE I

Data on blood

Case II M B Female, aged 37 Type III pneumococcus infection, right lower lobe Approximately 18 hours after the initial chill the amount of fibrinogen had increased to 0.93 gram, the maximum observed in this patient. The minimum sedimentation time, however, was not reached until the sixth day when the viscosity was greatest, the fibrinogen diminished but the total globulin increased slightly. During convalescence the amount of fibrinogen and globulin decreased, the viscosity diminished and the sedimentation time increased until normal values were found on the thirty-minth day. See Figure 1

Case III A K Male, aged 28 Type III pneumococcus infection, left lower lobe In this patient the fibrinogen and total globulin were practically normal in amount on the fifth day of illness, yet the sedimentation time was short (18 minutes) and the viscosity 21 During convalescence, on the thirtieth day, both the amount of fibrinogen and total globulin was increased, the viscosity decreased and the sedimentation time was nearly normal See Table I Observations in this case corroborate the findings of others who showed that increase in sedimentation time did not always parallel decrease in globulins

Case IV F F Male, aged 37 Pneumococcus group IV infection, right upper and lower lobes The amount of globulin and of fibrinogen was increased together with an increased viscosity and diminished sedimentation time as shown in Table I On the sixty-fourth day, the viscosity and sedimentation time were normal but the amount of fibrinogen was still increased to 0.61 gram

Case V S S Male, aged 29 Group IV pneumococcus infection, four lobes involved Although the fibrinogen content increased markedly between